

Date: August 11, 2005

To: Attendees of Probation and Parole Strategic Planning Meeting

Subj: Meeting Follow Up

From: State Sentencing and Corrections Program, Vera Institute of Justice

On June 23-24, the Vera Institute of Justice facilitated a strategic planning meeting for the Nebraska departments of Probation and Parole in Lincoln.<sup>1</sup> The purpose of the meeting was to articulate a mission for field services in Nebraska that would be consistent with evolving community corrections policies statewide, reach consensus on strategies for adapting probation and parole practices to support and advance this mission, and identify action plans for implementing structural and philosophical change.

This memorandum synthesizes the principal themes that emerged from the discussions at the meeting. It does not provide a comprehensive summary; rather, we have attempted to discuss areas where there was significant agreement among participants. The first part of the memorandum describes four central areas of consensus that surfaced during the meeting and highlights some further steps to sustain momentum in these areas. The second part of the memo recaps the group's preliminary planning around two longer term reform efforts, and presents some additional national information to inform a continued planning process.

### **Areas of Consensus**

Taken together, the discussions at the meeting revealed an overarching theme: this is a time of transition for community corrections in Nebraska, and a prime opportunity to implement a comprehensive and collaborative approach to community supervision statewide. Underlying many of the discussions was an acknowledgment by participants that the recent change in probation leadership and consideration of a merger between probation and parole have prompted some anxiety in both departments. Probation's introduction of its Specialized Substance Abuse Supervision program and fewer-than-expected new officer spots also seem to have created some uncertainty among some staff.

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<sup>1</sup> See Appendix 1 for a complete list of attendees and a meeting agenda.

At the same time, however, the planning group recognized that the convergence of all these factors created an important opportunity to re-examine probation and parole supervision practices in Nebraska, and to articulate a fresh direction for the work going forward. In particular, many spoke of a strong desire for action following years of talking about ways to improve community supervision. With all this in mind, the group reached consensus around four central areas that are ripe for continued discussion and action.

*A Collaborative Approach to Supervision:* All in all, the discussion reflected the group's commitment to integrate more deliberately the activities of probation and parole. For example, throughout the meeting, a number of participants expressed concern about the duplicative efforts expended when parole and probation officers supervise the same offender. Many wondered whether "dual supervision" is the most efficient use of resources, particularly in rural areas where staffing resources are scarce. The group agreed that greater efficiencies could be achieved by more intentionally sharing supervision responsibilities between probation and parole. Although some jurisdictions are already sharing supervision on an informal basis, the group concluded that formal policies and procedures should be put in place statewide. Some noted that there may be legal hurdles to clear before formalizing such an arrangement. Still, the willingness of leaders from both probation and parole to meet to consider the appropriate scope and details of a formal approach to shared supervision demonstrated encouraging interest in proceeding in a more purposeful way.

In a similar vein, participants agreed that training resources should be more readily shared between probation and parole. While different opinions were aired, there was general agreement that probationers and parolees manifest similar risks and needs and therefore much of the training and many of the resources pertinent to the supervision of one of these populations would likely also be relevant to the other. As a positive step in this direction, parole was invited to attend a July training session of new probation officers in Grand Island. In addition, several participants remarked that they would like to have more departmental resources earmarked for training in new techniques applicable to both parolees and probationers, including motivational interviewing.

As policies continue to evolve in support of more collaborative supervision practices, the group also agreed that attention should be paid to the issue of probation and parole revocation. The topic did not command the urgency that it has come to assume in some other states where political leaders have become increasingly aware of how parole and probation revocation can play a major role in spurring prison population growth. Still, participants identified it as a policy area in need of further examination. In an effort to develop a more standardized approach to this challenging issue, representatives from the Community Corrections Council, probation, and parole agreed to work together to evaluate current practices and identify opportunities for change.

*Defining Community Corrections:* There was considerable discussion about the need to develop a definition of "community corrections," in the specific context of Nebraska. While some were leery of more talk that could be seen as an excuse for inaction, others

said there was a real need to take stock of the state's evolving conception of community corrections. There seemed to be two main threads to this conversation. The first reflected a desire to better understand the philosophical purpose of community corrections. Is supervision, often leading to the discovery of violations and revocation, the purpose? Or, is the point to more closely focus on rehabilitation with the goal of preventing revocations that lead to increased rates of recidivism? There was no instant agreement that arose on these important and fundamental questions; the conversation revealed a need, at a basic level, to better understand the purpose of community corrections as it evolves.

The second thread offered more concrete adjuncts to the first. For example, participants expressed interest in better understanding how traditional and newly developing approaches by the departments of probation and parole fit in with the work and strategies of the Community Corrections Council. (In evaluations, many participants said that they came away from the meeting with a greatly enhanced understanding of the Council's work, implying that they knew little of the Council's work before.) Some inquired whether community corrections should be defined exclusively in terms of the work of the probation and parole departments or whether it should also encompass people and institutions not historically associated with the notion of community corrections in Nebraska, such as drug courts, program and treatment providers, offenders' families, Department of Correctional Services inmates (since most will be released to communities and become community corrections clients) and others. If such a broader definition is warranted, the central question arose of how to bring a larger and more disparate group of stakeholders together - to agree on work, operationalize relationships and programs in a practical and realistic way and ensure that such efforts are consonant with the emerging overall definition of community corrections in the state. To facilitate the continued discussion of this issue, staff from the Community Corrections Council agreed to coordinate subsequent discussions.

*Assessment:* Regardless of the ultimate definition of community corrections, many participants recognized the important role of an appropriate assessment of offender risks and needs. Currently there are a variety of assessment instruments in use across the state, but the focus of most of them has been predominantly on risks. Many participants observed that to facilitate an effective expansion of community corrections programming and supervision, the development of a standardized, statewide risk/needs assessment instrument must be a priority. With a uniform assessment strategy in place, participants expected to be able to identify more easily the individualized treatment needs of offenders, and target programmatic development to better meet those needs. Moreover, an enhanced and standardized assessment tool could also help guide supervision strategies, both in correctional settings and in the community. In particular, it was suggested that officer caseload targets could be set more realistically and efficiently – with a boost to both public safety and offender success – by better risk/needs assessments.

*Information Sharing:* Participants voiced a commitment to developing data sharing strategies. In particular, many referenced the importance of sharing information about an

offender's criminal history, substance abuse or other program history as that offender moves through different points in the criminal justice process. Many noted that information from pre-sentence investigations was not easily available to other stakeholders who could greatly benefit from access to that information. Some suggested that it would be very useful to automate such data but others raised concerns that confidentiality requirements could make some information difficult to share. The group was in favor of pursuing legislative strategies for making information more readily available to system stakeholders statewide. Many participants agreed that better information about offenders – both jurisdiction specific and statewide – was needed and could allow probation and parole to better organize resources, develop supervision and treatment responses, and coordinate field work with the aims of the Council's policy developments.

### **Opportunities for Change: Where Do We Go From Here?**

With these areas of consensus as a backdrop, the group identified two broader areas upon which to focus their longer term efforts toward reform: the development of day reporting centers statewide and the more deliberate integration of treatment resources into the community corrections infrastructure. The following discussion summarizes participants' preliminary thoughts about reform in these areas. To supplement the discussion, we have also included some pertinent examples of evidence-based, cost-effective approaches to day reporting centers and treatment integration from other jurisdictions.

*Day Reporting Centers:* Participants were interested in pursuing the development of regionalized day reporting centers. The purpose of the day reporting centers would be to provide “one stop shopping” for enhanced supervision and programming. Through the centers, offenders could gain access to counseling services, employment training, substance abuse treatment, and intensive probation supervision. While the centers might be responsive to the needs of a number of populations, there was specific interest in using the centers as a tool to help incarcerated offenders transition back into the community and for probation and parole violators. Participants determined that day reporting centers would be most advantageous in the state's population centers (*e.g.*, Lincoln, Omaha and other larger communities). Rural areas might offer the same types of services through less centralized means.<sup>2</sup>

The group concluded that planning for the centers must take place at both the state and local levels. On the state level, the Council, by seeking insights from a broader group of criminal justice stakeholders statewide, might identify operating standards and protocols for the day reporting centers. Localities, however, would take primary responsibility for

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<sup>2</sup> The group recognized an additional need to develop intensive inpatient treatment capacity. In particular, participants thought it would be beneficial to build a facility that would treat methamphetamine users outside of their own communities over extended periods of time. This facility would require planning and development separate from the day reporting centers. Other jurisdictions are looking at similar ideas. Indiana, for example, recently announced plans to develop a correctional facility devoted exclusively to inpatient treatment of methamphetamine users. We will monitor developments there and elsewhere and forward relevant information as it becomes available.

designing and operating each day reporting program. To that end, local planning efforts would determine location, facility structure, forge appropriate partnerships with local treatment providers, and structure programming that is responsive to the individualized needs of each community.

To facilitate these local planning processes, it was suggested that the Council help establish local planning entities (to the extent they did not already exist in a particular region). In addition, the Council agreed to take the lead in providing technical assistance and pertinent data analyses to support local planning and implementation.

As the state's reform process continues to evolve in this area, national models may serve to inform such efforts. In particular, North Carolina, as participants heard, has done considerable work integrating day reporting centers into the state's continuum of community-based punishments. As practiced in North Carolina, day reporting is a nonresidential intermediate punishment that combines intensive surveillance and rehabilitative services. North Carolina currently has 21 day reporting centers in operation. The centers target high-need offenders, such as substance abusers, the unemployed or underemployed as well as offenders who have violated the terms of their community supervision. In general, this is a population that would otherwise be prison-bound. Accordingly, on-site services include cognitive behavior intervention, job skills training, employment placement services, substance abuse services, educational courses and anger management training. The average length of supervision for an offender is twelve months. Offenders are managed by a team that includes a center director, an intermediate probation officer, a surveillance officer and a substance abuse care manager.

However, as the attached report by the National Center for State Courts on North Carolina's day reporting sanction shows, completion rates in the early years were low and progress since then has had to be earned. The report helpfully instructs that "the implementation process for North Carolina day reporting centers is best characterized as a period of continuous change and adaptation, sometimes lasting a year or more" and that "policymakers should anticipate changes to the original program design as the program finds its place within the larger criminal justice system." But as the further attached report by the National Institute of Justice demonstrates, jurisdictions that implement day reporting successfully can realize a variety of benefits. The Wisconsin day reporting centers examined in that study showed potentially lower rearrest rates as well as cost benefits for those offenders who successfully complete the program.<sup>3</sup>

*The Integration of Treatment Resources:* A second long-term goal articulated during the meeting was to provide a continuum of rehabilitative care and treatment options for offenders statewide. In pursuit of this objective, participants identified a number of goals. Most dealt with case planning. In particular, the group concluded that it would be useful to guide and prioritize the case planning process. Some urged that the development of case plans more actively include input from community-based treatment

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<sup>3</sup> As Nebraska's thinking on the right structure for day reporting develops, Vera can identify other relevant models and resources for state policymakers to consider.

providers. The development of adequate assessment tools was emphasized in this context, and deemed a critical component of designing meaningful case plans.

While committed to the overarching goal of improving the integration of treatment into community supervision, the group also identified challenges. The primary challenge at this juncture is the scarcity of program resources statewide. In particular, some of the discussion focused on the difficulties of providing adequate treatment resources in rural areas, where there is a lack of programmatic diversity and often long waiting lists for existing programs. Some probation officers would like to function as “informed consumers” of programmatic services and play a more meaningful role in defining what “intensive treatment” means to an individual offender. As the Council moves forward with the implementation of LB 46, however, treatment availability is expected to expand.

There was also a discussion around the development of policy and treatment protocols for different sorts of offenders, including sex offenders, the mentally ill, substance abusing offenders and those involved in domestic violence. Many acknowledged that while there are informal practices among probation and parole officers about how these offenders are handled under community supervision, it would be useful to develop more formalized statewide policies to guide management of these cases.

There are a number of useful models for integrating treatment – especially substance abuse treatment – into supervision that may inform participants of continued efforts to achieve these long term goals. Again, recent innovations in other jurisdictions may be helpful to Nebraska as officials consider various approaches.

For example, in 2003, Kansas enacted legislation to divert nonviolent drug possessors from prison and institute a comprehensive regimen of treatment options – with eligibility narrowly defined to maximize political support and minimize the risk to public safety. Senate Bill 123 created mandatory drug abuse treatment and community supervision for low-level first- and second-offense drug possession. Under the provisions, eligible offenders must receive an 18-month sentence of community-based drug abuse treatment in lieu of incarceration.

An estimated 1,400 people will be directed to community-based treatment each year as a result of the mandatory treatment, roughly 475 of whom would have gone to prison absent the new legislation. To ensure that participants receive appropriate treatment, the bill called for a two-pronged assessment of safety risk and substance abuse needs and stipulated that treatment providers be trained and certified by the Department of Corrections in providing treatment to offenders. The legislature underscored its determination to provide rehabilitation – and not just free up prison beds – by appropriating \$5.7 million for the program.

Following conviction of a first or second offense of drug possession, eligible offenders are placed under the supervision of a community corrections officer in one of the 31 community corrections districts in the state. The community corrections officer then chooses a local drug treatment provider for the offender. These drug treatment providers



are private (*i.e.*, non-state) community-based programs which may provide any combination of detoxification, drug education, out-patient treatment, in-patient treatment, and relapse prevention. Offenders receive a drug abuse assessment by a counselor at the service provider and a recommendation for type of treatment; a supervising community corrections officer and counselor then meet to determine treatment modality and discuss the offender's supervision.

The program is intended to create new links between supervision and treatment in the community. Community corrections officers and drug treatment counselors are intended to maintain ongoing, multiple contacts throughout the 18-month treatment period and to coordinate drug treatment services with other conditions of the community corrections sentence (*e.g.*, employment requirements, community service requirements, mental health treatment). The heads of community corrections districts must also create new links with drug treatment providers in the community, recruit new treatment providers, maintain contractual relationships, and resolve potential conflicts between officers and counselors.

In addition to these new lines of communication on the ground, the program also creates new levels of oversight within the state. Under the program, all service providers must be certified by the Department of Corrections, which approves service plans, verifies the licenses of individual counselors, and provides training on the provision of treatment to offender populations. The Kansas Sentencing Commission oversees the \$5.7 million appropriated by the state, administers all payments made to treatment providers for services delivered, and is responsible for monitoring and reporting on the sentencing, enrollment, and discharge of offenders from the program. Neither the Department of Corrections nor the Sentencing Commission was involved in the provision of drug treatment in the state prior to the passage of SB 123. While no formal evaluations yet exist on the program, early reports are encouraging and it is likely worthy of Nebraska's further consideration.

Another initiative worth keeping an eye on is Pennsylvania's recently passed Senate Bill 217 which established a sanction known as State Intermediate Punishment. Under SIP, certain nonviolent drug offenders may serve their term of imprisonment in a setting that allows for treatment of their addiction. (The new sanction does not apply to cases where there is a mandatory minimum sentence.) The Department of Corrections will establish an in-patient drug offender treatment program that is 24 months in duration. This will include a period of incarceration devoted to assessment and treatment at a state correctional institution for no less than seven months. This will be followed by: at least two months of treatment in a community-based therapeutic setting; at least six months of treatment at an outpatient addiction facility; and a period of supervised reintegration into the community. An offender may be expelled from the program if he fails to comply with any procedures, and no offender who has a history of violent behavior or sexual misconduct is eligible for SIP.

## **Conclusion**

The strategic planning meeting laid the foundation for an ongoing conversation about reform in Nebraska. As a result of the meeting, significant areas of consensus surfaced that should help guide a continuing process of structural and philosophical change. As probation and parole continue to develop and improve community supervision or rehabilitation strategies, there are process management lessons to be gleaned from jurisdictions across the country.

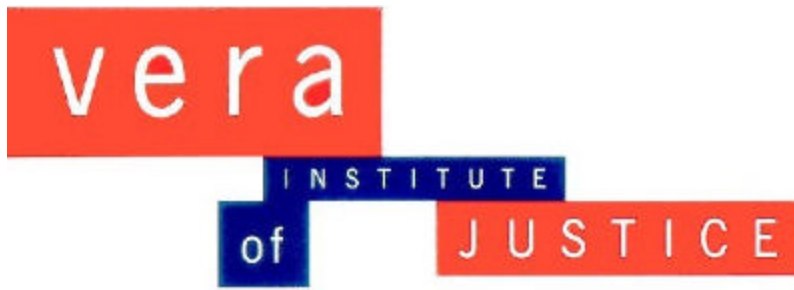
First, innovations and advances being considered and developed in the field and the broader strategic policy determinations developed by the Council must inform and reflect each other. Regular communication among stakeholders will be crucial to ensuring that occurs.

Second, system actors must continue to develop and analyze their own data resources and make more data available to other stakeholders. Such information will continue to play an increasingly important foundation for policy formulation.

Third, involved stakeholders must continue to develop ongoing and dynamic action plans to ensure that the conversations and consensus of the planning conference amount to something other than just talk. It is encouraging that initial follow-up steps were pledged at the meeting but it will also be essential to see that further steps occur after those activities. The Council is ideally situated to encourage and coordinate such communication and future efforts across agencies.

Finally, while some degree of uncertainty persists in both probation and parole, both entities are best served by continuing to develop a shared idea – in both philosophical and very pragmatic terms – of community corrections in Nebraska. In that way, the void that may be created by uncertainty can be filled by common constructive movement toward a strategically sound vision of community supervision.





## **APPENDIX 1**

### **ATTENDEE LIST AND MEETING AGENDA**

**June 22 – 24  
Strategic Planning Meeting**

**PARTICIPANT LIST**

Probation

Chief Probation Officers:

Gary Hoffman, Chadron  
Dick Brown, Wayne  
Rich Chisholm, Columbus  
Deb Minardi, Omaha  
Ellen Brokofsky, Papillion  
Steve Rowoldt, Lincoln  
Bob Horton, Hastings  
Carroll Brown, Grand Island  
Doug Watson, North Platte  
Dan Witko, Gering  
Jack McCarty, Beatrice  
Diane Sjuts, Fremont  
Kent Lilly, Kearney  
Jim Fahy, Omaha (Juvenile)  
Lori Griggs, Lincoln (Juvenile)

ISP Coordinators:

Don Douglas, Sidney  
Lonnie Folchert, Ogallala  
Sue Kissinger, Hastings  
Therese Vovoril, Lincoln  
Pamela Lewis, Omaha  
Mark DeMers, Columbus

Linda Zabel, Administrative Assistant  
David Wegner, Co-Administrator  
Frank Jenson, Co-Administrator

Parole

Paul Accardy, District Supervisor, Lincoln  
Cynthia Stewart, District Supervisor, Omaha  
Cathy Gibson-Beltz, Assistant Parole Administrator  
Jim McKenzie, Parole Administrator

### Department of Correctional Services

Bob Houston, Director

Larry Wayne, Assistant Director – Programs and Community Services

Steve King, Planning and Research

Ryan Mahr, Superintendent – Community Corrections Center Omaha

Rex Richard, Superintendent – Community Corrections Center Lincoln

### Court Administration

Janice Walker, Court Administrator

Scott Carlson, Statewide Coordinator for Problem Solving Courts

### Health and Human Services

Linda Wittmuss, Office of Behavioral Health

### Vera Institute of Justice

Sara Mogulescu, Director, Youth Justice Program

Dan Wilhelm, Director, State Sentencing and Corrections Program

Alicia Young, Senior Program Associate, State Sentencing and Corrections Program

Barb Broderick, Chief Probation Officer, Maricopa County, Arizona

Robert Guy, Director, North Carolina Division of Community Corrections

### Community Corrections Council

Judge Icenogle, District Court Judge, Buffalo and Hall Counties

Linda Krutz, Executive Director

Julie Rogers, Executive Policy Analyst



**Agenda**  
**Probation and Parole Strategic Planning Meeting 2005**  
**Lincoln, Nebraska – June 22-24, 2005**

**Wednesday, June 22<sup>nd</sup>**

**5:30-7:30      Reception**  
Embassy Suites Atrium, 1040 P Street (at 10<sup>th</sup> Street)

**Thursday, June 23<sup>rd</sup>**

**8:30-9:00      Breakfast**

**9:00-10:00      Welcome and Introductions**  
Senator Kermit Brashear

**10:00-10:15      Agenda Overview**  
Dan Wilhelm and Sara Mogulescu, the Vera Institute of Justice

**10:15-11:30      Focus on Maricopa County, Arizona**  
Barbara Broderick, Chief Probation Officer

**11:30-11:45      Break**

**11:45-1:00      Focus on North Carolina**  
Robert Guy, Director, Division of Community Corrections

**1:00-2:00      Lunch**

**2:00-3:30      Discussion: Review of Mission, Objectives and Goals**

**3:30-3:45      Break**

**3:45-5:30      Discussion: Adapting Practices to Mission**

**5:30              Adjourn**

**Friday, June 24<sup>th</sup>**

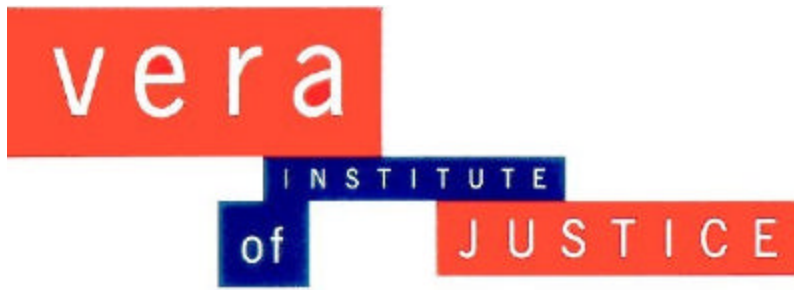
**8:00-8:30      Breakfast**

**8:30-9:00      Recap from Day 1 – Outstanding Questions and Comments**

**9:00-12:00      Discussion: Review of Next Steps, Short- and Long-Term Action Plans**  
**(with a break)**

**12:00-12:30      Wrap-up: Final observations from Participants and Associates**

**12:30              Adjourn and lunch served**



## **APPENDIX 2**

### **DAY REPORTING CENTERS IN NORTH CAROLINA: IMPLEMENTATION LESSONS FOR POLICYMAKERS**

# Day Reporting Centers in North Carolina: Implementation Lessons for Policymakers\*

*James R. Brunet*

*The purpose of this article is to analyze the implementation of day reporting as a new intermediate sanction in North Carolina. This is accomplished by comparing the implementation experiences of two day reporting centers in Davidson and Guilford counties. From the early programmatic experiences (both positive and negative) of these centers, a series of "lessons learned" are offered for justice system policymakers who may be considering day reporting as a new element in a continuum of sanctions.*

The North Carolina criminal justice system reached a breaking point in the late 1980s. The condition of the patient, while not terminal, was quite severe: "North Carolina's prison cells were full, but they held too many of the wrong people—nonviolent, low-priority felons. The sentencing system was variable and uneven. Offenders served very small portions of the sentences that judges imposed" (Wright, 1998:2). To remedy the situation, the North Carolina General Assembly created the North Carolina Sentencing and Policy Advisory Commission and charged it with formulating a long-term response to the state's prison capacity and sentencing concerns. Two landmark pieces of legislation emerged from the work of the sentencing commission in 1993. The first enactment initiated a major reworking of the state's sentencing laws. Under the new sentencing guidelines (popularly called Structured Sentencing), costly jail and prison resources were reserved for violent and repeat offenders. To ensure adequate space in secured facilities for these high-risk offenders, nonviolent offenders with little or no prior criminal history were diverted to noncustodial, community-based punishments.

The North Carolina State-County Criminal Justice Partnership Act (North Carolina General Statutes §143B-273, et seq.), adopted as companion legislation to Structured Sentencing, created a state-funded grant program to foster the development of supplemental community-based corrections programs in the state's one hundred counties. The statute established two broad goals for programs funded under its provisions—to reduce offender recidivism and to lower criminal justice system costs. To qualify for the state subsidy, counties had to undertake an extensive self-study of the local criminal justice system and select a program from an approved list of intermediate sanctions. The list included programs that were already used in North Carolina, such as residential facili-

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\* This article is based on an earlier paper titled "Day Reporting Centers in North Carolina: A Preliminary Review of Program Implementation" (1997), delivered at the Southeastern Conference of Public Administration, Knoxville, Tennessee.



ties and substance abuse services. The Partnership Act also permitted counties to experiment with interventions that were previously unavailable in North Carolina (i.e., restitution and day reporting centers). Many counties opted for the novel approach. In less than four years, North Carolina became home to forty day reporting centers (DRCs) with annual operating expenditures approaching \$5.1 million.

To find the genesis of day reporting, one must look back over two decades before North Carolina's large-scale implementation of the concept. Two factors contributed to the development of day reporting in the United States. The British experience with probation day centers in the 1970s served as an early influence. The British day centers were used to monitor "chronic, but less serious offenders" who were often "imprisoned because the courts previously had tried all other options, including custodial sentences, to no avail" (Parent, 1990:77). A second influence had domestic origins. Several communities created day treatment programs to deliver a range of therapeutic services to at-risk youth and deinstitutionalized mental patients (Parent, 1990:2). Thus, the preconditions were in place for a major investment in day reporting—corrections systems overflowing with "less serious" offenders and some limited experience supervising and counseling clients on a daily basis. Over a ten-year period beginning in the mid-1980s, the number of day reporting centers in the United States grew from a handful of programs clustered in a few states to 114 programs in twenty-two states (Parent et al., 1995).

What is most apparent from a look back at the evolution of day reporting in England and the United States is the diversity of programs that fall under the label of "day reporting." Parent (1990) documented how day reporting centers varied in terms of client recruitment (e.g., pretrial, direct sentence, probation violation, work release), the number of daily/weekly contacts, and program duration, among other factors. In the end, all centers share two characteristics: a) a strong supervision orientation that requires program participants to regularly report to the center and b) a complement of services (e.g., GED, job placement, drug treatment, counseling). As practiced in North Carolina, day reporting is a nonresidential intermediate punishment that combines intensive surveillance and rehabilitative services.

The purpose of this article is to describe in detail the implementation of day reporting as a new intermediate sanction in North Carolina. The analysis focuses on the implementation experiences of two day reporting centers in Davidson (pop. 138,718 [1996 est.]) and Guilford (pop. 377,722 [1996 est.]) counties. These day reporting centers are alike in location (Piedmont Triad region of central North Carolina) and start-up date. The Guilford and Davidson centers, ahead of sister programs in other counties, began accepting offenders in December 1995 and January 1996, respectively. From the early programmatic experiences of these centers a series of "lessons learned" are offered for justice system policymakers who may be considering day reporting as a new element in a continuum of sanctions. Prior knowledge of potential pitfalls allows for adjustments in the initial phases of program development, thereby improving the overall quality of the intervention. Indeed, if a program is not well implemented, it cannot be expected to have rehabilitative or diversionary effects.

## Methodology

Implementation evaluation is a common approach for studying new programs. Unlike other types of evaluation, which gauge the effectiveness of an intervention after it has become well established (commonly called impact or outcome evaluation), implementation evaluation is geared toward improving the program under study. This is accomplished by comparing planned program components to those that are actually implemented. Two key aspects of program delivery are measured: a) the scope of implementation in the number of clients reached and their characteristics and b) the extent of implementation in the number and quality of services delivered (Scheirer, 1994:52). These two important elements provide a natural framework for a large part of this analysis. In addition, the impact of the external context on program development is explored. For example, a program's success or failure may ultimately depend on the strength of external support for the innovation. Another important consideration is the program's ability to quickly integrate into the existing environment. In sum, implementation evaluation examines the extent to which the program is operating as originally planned and describes the "fit" between the program and its organizational context.

To gain a comprehensive understanding of the programs under study, a multimethod approach to data collection was employed. Research strategies included a) *a review of existing records* maintained by the day reporting centers and service providers;<sup>1</sup> b) *interviews* with DRC staff and service providers; c) *direct observation* of administrative operations and service delivery; and d) a *telephone survey* of members of the Davidson County advisory board responsible for program oversight. Telephone interviews with advisory board members occurred over a two-week period in June 1997. Three attempts were made to contact board members. The response rate for the advisory board survey was 87.5 percent (fourteen of sixteen board members).

## Program Description

As noted earlier, by definition, implementation evaluation is a comparison of the planned program to the program that was actually implemented. Therefore, it is important to lead off the analysis with a clear description of the intended program. The description section begins with a general overview of the historical development of the DRCs from conceptualization through implementation. After establishing the context surrounding the creation of the DRCs, the finer details of program operation are considered, including program mission, underlying theory, structure, target population, and components.

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<sup>1</sup> Data for the Davidson DRC were collected for the first seventeen months of program operation beginning January 1996 and ending May 1997. Guilford data covers the time period between December 1995 and July 1997.

### ***Historical Perspective***

Both DRCs progressed through three distinct periods—local planning, program and policy development, and operation. In brief, the first phase was dominated by the work of the local advisory boards. The boards, with representatives from the major institutions and interests in the local criminal justice system (e.g., judges, attorneys, law enforcement officials, probation supervisors, mental and public health providers, community college administrators), reviewed statistical data, identified gaps in local programming, and selected an intervention to address the perceived need. Guilford's planning stage lasted approximately one year. The Davidson board took half as much time to formulate its plan. The hiring of a program director, site selection, and the development of policies in both counties characterized the second stage. Lastly, the Guilford DRC, for reasons to be discussed later, formally opened its doors a full five months after its projected start date. The Davidson DRC, in contrast, began operations on its scheduled opening date. In the end, the planning and development processes in Guilford took almost two years to complete, a year longer than in Davidson.

### ***Mission and Goals***

In general, the two DRC mission statements share common themes of structured intervention and rehabilitative programming. The stated mission of Davidson's DRC is to provide a "highly structured, non-residential, intermediate program with emphasis on services, supervision, and sanctions." For Guilford, the DRC's interim mission is "to assist nonviolent felony and misdemeanor offenders in the coordination of clinical services appropriate for addressing their individual needs in an attempt to prevent probation revocation, recidivism and the commission of new crimes." Davidson emphasizes the structure and supervision aspects of the DRC while Guilford shades toward individual rehabilitation.

To fulfill their missions, the DRCs implicitly adopted the program goals set out in the Partnership Act: to reduce recidivism; to reduce the number of probation revocations; to reduce alcoholism and other drug dependencies among offenders; and to reduce the cost of incarceration.

### ***Theory***

In this section, several prominent theories relating to intermediate sanctions are summarized. This effort is not meant to be a comprehensive restatement of all existing knowledge in the field, but an attempt to make explicit the most important theoretical assumptions underlying the day reporting concept.

*Intensive Surveillance Will Deter Criminal Behavior.* In line with other types of intermediate sanctions, day reporting centers emphasize intensive offender supervision. They typically have strict requirements for monitoring the whereabouts and behavior of program participants. Most day reporting centers require more frequent contacts than the most intensive form of probation available (Parent et al., 1995:2). The implicit

assumption is that intensive monitoring of offenders in the community deters criminal behavior and lowers rearrest rates. However, the research literature is mixed on the issue. Some intensive probation programs report lower rearrest rates for program participants, while others actually report more arrests among monitored offenders (General Accounting Office, 1990:30-40). One study found no difference between intensive and nonintensive study groups in terms of criminal arrests, but discovered that the intensive supervision cohort had a higher proportion of technical violations (Turner, Petersilia, and Deschenes, 1992:539).

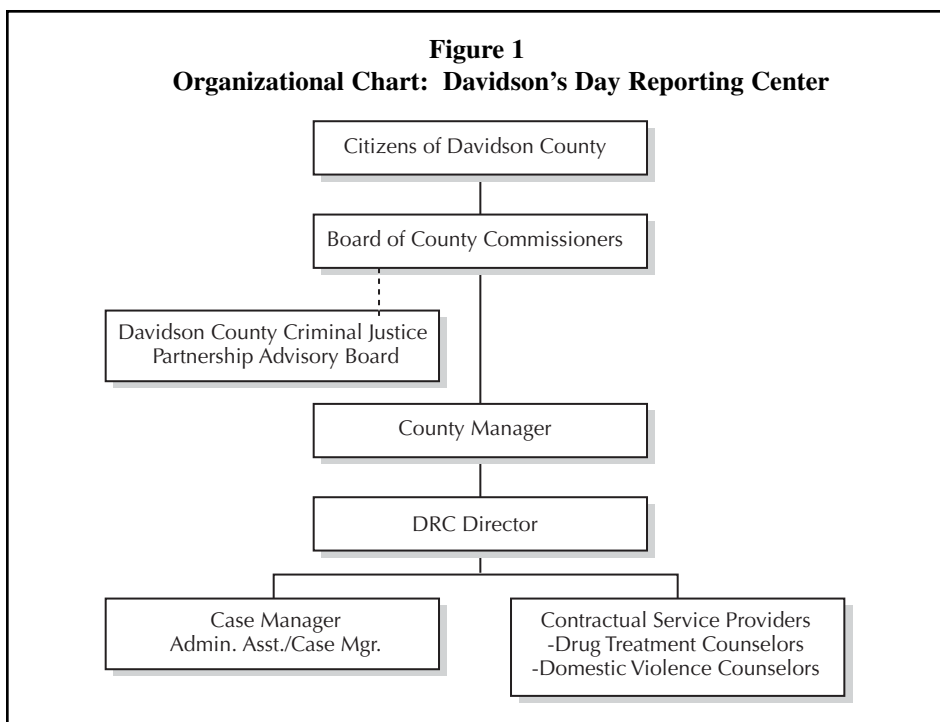
*Rehabilitative Services Will Prevent Offender Recidivism.* Many day reporting centers operate under the assumption that providing services, especially those that reduce alcohol and drug dependencies, will lower recidivism rates. There is perhaps more support in the literature for this claim. For example, in a study cited earlier, intensive supervision probation programs in Texas and California that offered substance abuse counseling and other services had a 10 to 20 percent lower recidivism rate than those that did not provide the services (Petersilia and Turner, 1993:8-9). Pretrial detainees at a Cook County, Illinois, day reporting center reduced their drug use and improved attendance at court-ordered hearings during participation in the program (McBride and VanderWaal, 1997). The type of intervention strategy and offender risk level are key variables to consider when developing a rehabilitation program. The most effective interventions use operant conditioning (i.e., positive reinforcement) to alter the antisocial behaviors of high-risk offenders (Gendreau, 1996:120-122). Additionally, proponents of community-based programming claim that certain services are perhaps more effective when delivered within the context of community.

*Intermediate Sanctions Are a Cost-Effective Alternative to Incarceration.* Several noted commentators have raised serious questions about the cost-savings potential of intermediate sanctions (Tonry, 1998; Petersilia, 1998). Policymakers should consider the following questions when analyzing the cost-savings assumption: Are the persons who receive intermediate sanctions actually diverted from active sentences? What are the administrative and court costs involved in revoking an offender's probation? Do most intensively monitored offenders eventually land in prison anyway because of technical violations and new criminal activity? In addition, the number of offenders served and number of services provided leads to large variations in program costs. In his seminal work on day reporting centers, Parent noted the wide disparity in estimated daily costs per offender (\$7.27 to \$52.42) among the first day reporting centers in the United States (Parent, 1990:29). In the end, initial cost savings realized by diverting persons from incarceration may be washed away by a greater number of probation revocations resulting from the increased detection of technical violations.

## ***Organizational Structure***

The two DRCs share a similar administrative architecture. Both are departments within their respective county governments (see, for example, Davidson's Organizational Chart in **Figure 1**). The elected board of county commissioners approves

**Figure 1**  
**Organizational Chart: Davidson's Day Reporting Center**



annual budget requests for the center. The commissioners also appoint the members of the local criminal justice partnership board. The partnership board formulates the county's community-based corrections plan and advises the commission on other criminal justice matters. The county manager, a professional administrator who serves at the pleasure of the commissioners, is ultimately responsible for the overall organization and management of the DRC.

A center's staff can be divided into two categories—county personnel and outside contractors. For the county, the director oversees the day-to-day operations of the center, including the supervision of personnel and coordination of all services. The director, like other county department heads, reports to the county manager. Case managers are responsible for structuring the daily on- and off-site activities of DRC offenders, ensuring offender compliance with court-ordered sanctions, and following offender progress toward individual treatment, educational, and employment goals. The knowledge, skills, and abilities for the director and case management staff are similar between the counties (typically a college degree in the social/behavioral sciences and some experience working with the target group). Both DRCs rely heavily on outside contractors to provide services to program participants, including substance abuse treatment, job readiness seminars, GED classes, and many types of counseling (e.g., domestic violence, anger management). Contract personnel are often provided with permanent office space at the center. Contractors have dual reporting responsibilities—to off-site agency super-

visors and to the DRC director. In the end, the DRC director provides the most direct oversight of contractor activities.

### ***Target Population***

Targeting is the process by which a jurisdiction examines offender groups by their profiles to choose appropriate sanctions for them (Carter, 1993:91).<sup>2</sup> The targeting policies for each DRC are discussed below.

*Davidson.* The population eligible for entry into the day reporting center has expanded considerably. The original plan targeted two types of offenders—newly sentenced felons eligible for an intermediate sanction and already convicted felons at risk for probation revocation. The population was expected to be predominantly males under the age of 35 who were likely to be unemployed or underemployed, to possess no or limited job skills, to have less than a high-school education, and to have a substance abuse problem. It does not appear that these original standards were ever practically applied because misdemeanants were admitted into the program during the second month of operation.<sup>3</sup> The program currently accepts intermediate sanctioned offenders (sentenced and probation modifications) who a) are county residents, b) do not have any serious pending charges in which an active sentence is the only sanction, and c) do not have a lengthy history of violence (a new condition added in 1997-98 plan).

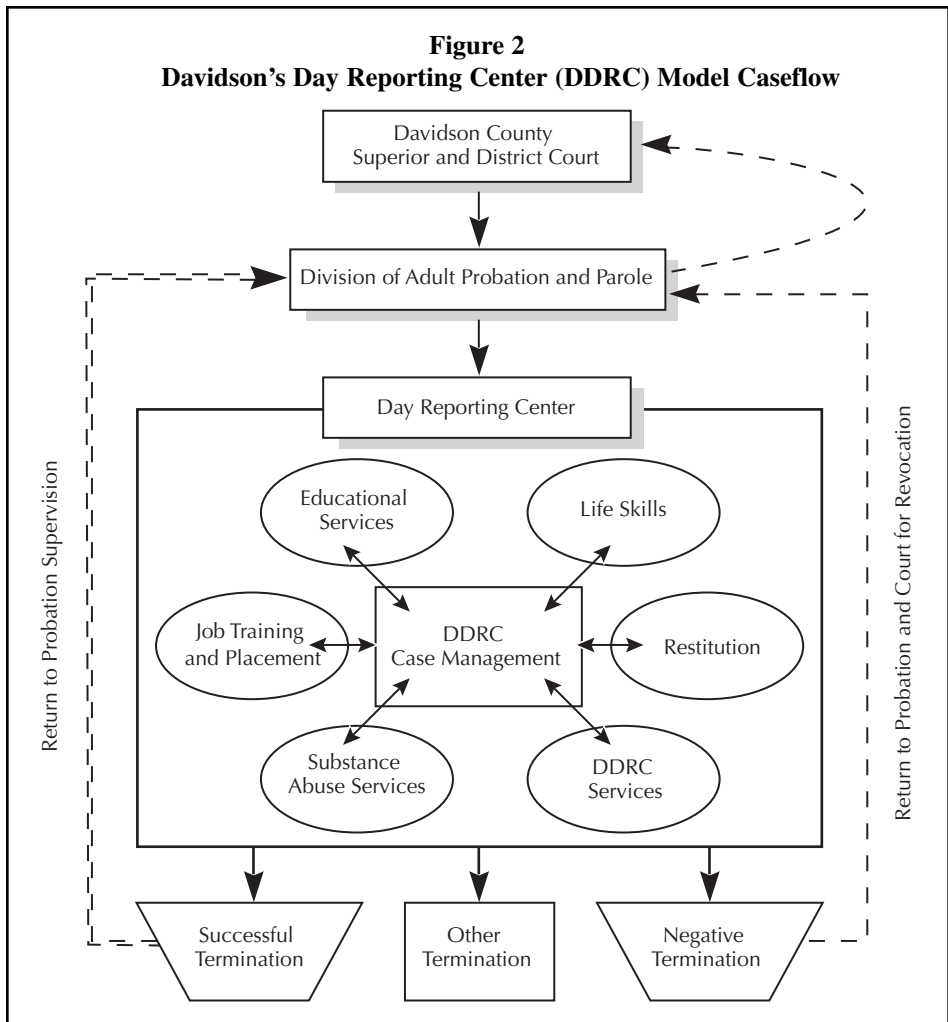
*Guilford.* The primary target population for DRC services are certain nonviolent felony and misdemeanor offenders who receive an intermediate punishment requiring supervised probation. The local criminal justice planning board discovered during its planning process that persons in the target category are predominantly African-American males under the age of 25 who are likely to be unemployed or underemployed, to possess no or limited job skills, to have less than a high school education, and to have a substance abuse problem. Specific classes of offenders are excluded from the program including those who a) have a past history of violent behavior or b) have a current conviction for an especially violent or heinous crime (e.g., murder, manslaughter, violent assaults, rape, indecent liberties, armed robbery, and trafficking in controlled substances, among others).

On targeting policy, the two programs differ significantly. Guilford's target population is narrow and focused. It primarily targets young men who commit nonviolent felonies. In contrast, Davidson's policy gives judges wide discretion on whom to send to the center. The target profile includes misdemeanants and felons, men and women of

<sup>2</sup> An anonymous reviewer notes that criminal justice planners and courtroom practitioners (judge, district attorney, and defense counsel) have different views of targeting. For the planner, the DRC is more likely seen as an input; that is, a mechanism for diverting offenders from prison and perhaps even rehabilitating them. In contrast, the courtroom work group thinks of these programs as final results—as something that offenders can be rewarded with if they are not “really bad.” Judges and attorneys focus on each case before it reaches disposition and are less concerned with what happens after sentencing. For these system actors, targeting is a means for preserving their power and autonomy to select the most deserving offenders for the new program.

<sup>3</sup> Apparently, it is not unusual for a community correction program to shift targeting policy “in the direction of the less serious offender” soon after program adoption (see Harris and Smith, 1996:209).





all ages, as well as those who may have committed violent crimes. Theoretically, Davidson's DRC may attract offenders who fall on the far fringes of the sentencing grid (both lesser and more serious crimes).

### ***Planned Program Components and Procedures***

This section contains a brief description of the *intended* program. As an organizing principle, the discussion will follow the steps in the model caseflow depicted in **Figure 2**. The Davidson caseflow is used solely out of convenience. The Guilford process is essentially the same.

*Program Referral.* In the model process, DRC participants are ordered to the program by a superior or district court judge. The offender receives a suspended sentence mandating a period of probationary supervision with the added condition that the offender report to the DRC and comply with its requirements. The process for selecting program participants is handled on a case-by-case basis. Offenders who meet the express eligibility criteria (i.e., intermediate sanction, type of crime) are not guaranteed entry into the program. Many factors influence the court's final sentencing decision, including the judge's individual preferences and philosophy, district attorney and defense lawyer recommendations, and availability of other sentencing options. After sentencing, the offender reports to the Division of Adult Probation and Parole and to the DRC for intake and assessment activities.

*Program Structure.* For its basic program design, policymakers adopted a three-phase approach used by day reporting centers elsewhere. The program provides intensive supervision and rehabilitative services in the early stages and gradually relaxes the frequency of certain supervision contacts as the offender demonstrates an ability to comply with program requirements. The first phase consists of an intake interview, program orientation, and several needs assessments. The offender signs an individual treatment plan specifying all programmatic requirements to be undertaken in upcoming phases. During the first phase, offenders are required to report to the center more frequently until all activities have been completed. The first phase lasts approximately one to two weeks. The second and longest phase is the treatment phase. In this phase, the offender fully participates in the activities outlined in the individualized treatment plan. The length of this phase is variable, depending upon offender success in achieving goals. In most cases, this stage lasts from four to twelve months. The third phase, or reintegration stage, prepares the offender to return to a less supervised environment. As with the second phase, offenders continue their participation in DRC programming but with fewer contacts at the discretion of the case manager. Each offender participates in an exit interview after completing the DRC program. Probation officers are notified of an offender's final status with respect to the program.

*Services.* As spelled out in the original Guilford and Davidson plans, the DRC was conceived as a central coordinator of services for the targeted class of offenders. Through its intensive case management function, the DRC was to serve as the offender's single portal of entry into a variety of existing community resources, including education (literacy, GED), job training and placement, substance abuse (assessment, treatment, support groups), life skills (parenting, anger management), restitution, and other related services. Many services would be offered at the center.

*Sanction and Termination Policies.* To encourage offender compliance with program rules and requirements, the DRC developed a system of sanctions to modify unacceptable behaviors. Minor violations include less serious rule infractions such as failing to report to the center as scheduled, testing positive for drugs, or using inappropriate language. These violations may result in additional in-person reporting requirements, more restrictive curfews, assignment to community service work projects, or other amendments to the offender's contract. Certain minor violations may be "earned back" by completing addi-

tional programming or work projects. An offender may be cited for a major violation of DRC rules if he absconds from supervision, threatens program staff, or accumulates multiple minor violations. If assessed a major violation, the offender is immediately terminated from the program and returned to court for a probation revocation.

Persons are terminated from the program for three reasons: positive (successful completion), negative (failure to comply with program requirements, commission of new crime), or other (transfers out of county, death, extended hospitalization).

## **Analysis of Implementation**

The analysis of program implementation is undertaken in five parts. First, changes in the original plan are identified and explained. Second, the scope of implementation is measured by comparing the characteristics of actual program participants to the characteristics of the proposed target population. Third, the extent of implementation is measured by comparing the actual services delivered at the DRC to the service levels envisioned in the original plan. Fourth, the perceptions of key policymakers about the DRC are presented (Davidson only). Finally, the characteristics of offenders who have both succeeded and failed in the program are discussed.

### ***Modifications to Original Program Design***

During implementation, the original program design was refined to conform to changing operational and policy considerations. Major modifications are briefly noted below.

*Davidson.* Davidson recorded two notable deviations from the intended program—a change in target population and program length. Each is described in turn below. First, the original community-based corrections plan targeted the highest risk offenders receiving nonincarcerative punishments for entry into the DRC. Program eligibility was generally limited to felons whose only sentencing options were intermediate or intermediate/active punishments. Almost immediately after agreeing on the target population, changes were made to open up eligibility to lower risk offenders (i.e., misdemeanants). The broadening of eligibility criteria led to a significant increase in the size of the potential applicant pool. Second, the original plan suggested that clients would stay in the program for an average period of ninety days. This estimate was based on a survey of day reporting centers in the late 1980s (Parent, 1990). It quickly became evident to day reporting center administrators that the ninety-day cap did not provide enough time for offenders to complete all program requirements (especially intensive outpatient substance abuse treatment). The program was extended to match the fifty-two-week outpatient treatment schedule recommended for most clients. In practice, however, the actual length of stay in the program depends upon the offender's progress toward completing the goals set out in the individual treatment plan. Thus, it is more accurate to describe the length of stay in terms of a range of months. Of persons who successfully completed the program to date, most (83 percent) had program stays between eight to fourteen months.

*Guilford.* Guilford officials also modified program policies and operations to accommodate external factors. The first change involved the center start date. The target date for opening was delayed five months. Most of the delay was attributable to miscalculations in forecasting the length of time to complete start-up tasks. Community resistance to the first site selected for the center and subsequent relocation also pushed the start date back by one month. In line with Davidson's experience, Guilford increased the length of stay in the program (originally ninety days) to match offender service and supervision needs.

### ***Scope of Implementation***

In this section we investigate whether the program is reaching the number and type of clients that it originally set out to serve. Ideally, the program should only accept offenders who meet preset program referral criteria and fit the target profile.

*Program Admissions and Caseload.* Ninety-five offenders were admitted to Davidson's program between January 1996 and May 1997. Over a slightly longer time period (December 1995–July 1997), Guilford recorded 142 program entries. Approximately 92 percent of Davidson admissions were sentenced directly to the program on a new conviction, while the remaining 8 percent were placed in the center due to modifications in their existing probation. In the latter cases, the DRC was often used as an additional sanction for technical violations of probation. Guilford had several more probation modifications, but the overwhelming majority were direct sentences. Both programs appear to admit offenders who meet all entry requirements for the DRC (Davidson recorded a 97.9 percent targeting accuracy rate; Guilford's accuracy rate was 98 percent through the first six months of operation).

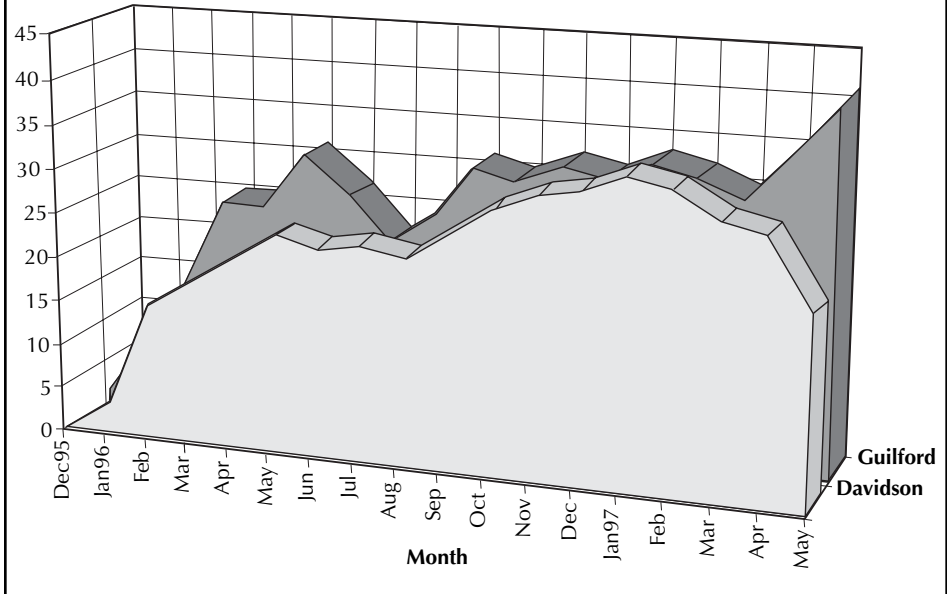
The DRCs have similar capacity levels. Guilford can accommodate fifty clients while Davidson has established a forty-five-client cap.<sup>4</sup> At both centers, total program enrollment rose with moderate consistency through the first year (see **Figure 3**). Davidson reached its enrollment apex of thirty-four offenders (76 percent capacity) in January 1997. Since that time, the number of offenders in the DRC has dropped to its current level of twenty-one active clients (47 percent). Guilford has continued its upward trend, reaching a high-water mark in May 1997 (82 percent). These census figures match the experiences of day reporting centers in other parts of the country (Parent, 1995).

*Offender Characteristics.* The DRCs differ in the use of socioeconomic characteristics as a targeting tool. It is instructive to study who is receiving services for both equity and program effectiveness reasons. The Davidson offender profile data presented in **Table 1** were gathered primarily from a self-reported survey that is completed by offenders during the first phase. It is important to note that many persons who are negatively terminated from the program during this initial phase do not complete the needs assessment. Thus, the reported data may skew the results to those who are more successful in

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<sup>4</sup> Program capacities were set by the local planning boards to meet the expected number of eligible offenders under the new sentencing guidelines.

**Figure 3**  
**Davidson's and Guilford's Day Reporting Centers End-of-Month Census**  
**December 1995–May 1997**



the program. Case managers collected the Guilford data during initial screening interview.

The two DRCs attract offenders with different socioeconomic characteristics (see **Table 1**). Key differences in offender characteristics are highlighted below:

- Males comprise 100 percent of all program admissions in Guilford, while women comprise a significant minority (18 percent) in Davidson.
- Blacks and whites are equally represented in Davidson, while 78 percent of Guilford offenders are black.
- Guilford caters to a much younger clientele (42 percent under twenty years of age).
- Guilford offenders are more likely to be unemployed and less likely to have graduated from high school than their counterparts in Davidson.
- Most offenders at both centers are not married; however, Guilford offenders report fewer dependent children.

**Table 1**  
**Socioeconomic Characteristics of DRC Offenders**

	Davidson		Guilford		Davidson		Guilford
Race and Gender				Marital Status			
White male	41%	20%		Married	18%	6%	
White female	9%	0%		Divorced/Remarried	3%		
Black male	39%	78%		Living together	11%		
Black female	8%	0%		Separated	13%	1%	
Hispanic male	1%	0%		Divorced	8%	5%	
Hispanic female	0%	0%		Never Married	47%	88%	
Native Amer male	1%	2%			N=76	N=142	
Native Amer female	0%	0%			N=95	N=142	
Age				Dependent Children			
< 20	14%	42%		0	40%	62%	
20-29	35%	42%		1	19%	23%	
30-39	34%	11%		2	22%	10%	
40-49	16%	5%		3	12%	1%	
50+	1%	0%		4+	6%	4%	
	N=94	N=142			N=77	N=142	
Highest Grade Completed				Employment Status			
<9	11%	6%		Employed	53%	40%	
9-11	43%	70%		Employed part-time	8%		
12	43%	22%		Unemployed	31%	60%	
13-15	2%	1%		Student	3%		
16+	1%	1%		Disabled	5%		
	N=84	N=142			N=75	N=142	
Income Level				Housing			
\$0-10,000	64%	NA		Own	18%	NA	
\$10,001-20,000	28%	NA		Rent	82%	NA	
\$20,001-30,000	5%	NA			N=76		
\$30,001+	3%	NA			N=75		

**Notes:** NA Not Available

**Source:** Needs Assessment and Intake Interview Form (Davidson) and Case Files (Guilford)

For the most part, program participants match the expected characteristics contained in the original target populations. The most surprising deviance is in the employment area. Many Davidson offenders report that they are working full-time at the time of entry into the DRC.



**Table 2**  
**Criminal Characteristics and History of DRC Offenders**

	Davidson	Guilford		Davidson	Guilford
<b>Offense Type</b>			<b>Family Member Ever Jailed</b>		
Misdemeanor	61%	13%	Yes	47%	NA
Felony	38%	87%	No	52%	NA
Other	1%	0%		N=72	
	N=95	N=138			
<b>Offense Class</b>			<b>Prior Criminal History<sup>b</sup></b>		
Person	27%	17%	Yes	86%	77%
Property	32%	42%	No	14%	23%
Drug	28%	34%		N=93	N=142
Other <sup>a</sup>	13%	6%			
	N=95	N=140			

**Source:** Needs Questionnaire (Davidson) and Judgment (both)

**Notes:** <sup>a</sup> Includes motor vehicle and public order crimes.

<sup>b</sup> Computed using sentencing grid location.

NA Not Available

Misdemeanants make up the largest portion of offenders in Davidson, 61 percent, while the opposite is true in Guilford, which is 87 percent felons (see **Table 2**). They have been convicted of many different crimes, from serious assault to driving with a revoked license. No single offense class predominates at either center, although property crimes appear more frequently in Guilford and personal crimes in Davidson. Almost half (47 percent) of Davidson offenders report having a family member jailed at some point. A large majority had been convicted of crimes before their most recent transgression.

In sum, it appears that the DRCs are meeting their objective to accept offenders who meet stated eligibility criteria. This is in part due (at least in Davidson County) to the very broad target standards that have been established. It is also important to note that each center attracts clients with distinctive socioeconomic backgrounds and service needs. This leads to a fair amount of diversity in DRC programming. No two programs are exactly alike.

### ***Extent of Implementation***

The next measure of implementation is to determine whether the services actually delivered at the DRCs are the services that were proposed in the original program design.

*Educational Services.* The Guilford DRC has a Guilford Technical Community College (GTCC) instructor on-site. All offenders are screened for educational deficiencies, and many are enrolled in different programs based upon assessment scores. In 1996 about 65 percent of offenders attended classes at the center. Several completed their

GEDs while in the DRC. Davidson has been unable to marshal enough students to justify having a community college instructor on-site. As a result, no offender has completed all degree/certificate requirements.

*Job Training and Placement.* Both programs have made inroads in the job placement area. Guilford has an Employment Security Commission “offender specialist” on-site to assess offender interests and needs. The offender specialist provides individual and group instruction in three principal areas: job-seeking skills, job placement, and job retention. Approximately two-thirds who reported that they were unemployed upon entering the Guilford program landed jobs while at the center. The Davidson DRC case managers assume primary responsibility for job placement activities, which include conducting online job searches, placing calls to potential employers, arranging interviews, and driving offenders to scheduled appointments. Davidson program staff report that they assisted thirty-three individuals with their job searches. As a result of DRC intervention, all eligible program participants are employed by the second phase. Jobs are secured in food service, manufacturing, construction, and other service fields.

*Substance Abuse Services.* A full range of substance abuse treatment services are available either at the centers or through referrals to outside sites. For the most part, substance abuse treatment is the centerpiece of all activities. All assessed persons were determined to have some type of alcohol- or drug-related problem in Davidson. Almost 70 percent were assessed with a drug or alcohol dependency or abuse problem in Guilford. Intensive outpatient treatment (IOP) was the most recommended treatment modality at each site. Some offenders also received referrals to twenty-eight-day inpatient drug treatment centers and detoxification facilities. During all phases clients are required to attend AA/NA meetings (on-site in Guilford). In addition, the staff at the Davidson center administers random breathalyzer and urine-screening tests.

*Life Skills.* Life skills is a catchall phrase used for programs that do not easily fit into one of the other program categorizations. In October 1996 domestic violence assessment and counseling was added in Davidson. Three offenders completed the domestic violence program. Although planned, Guilford did not implement a package of life skills programs during the period of study.

*Restitution.* Both centers are approved sites for the completion of court-ordered community service work hours. DRC staff assign offenders to a variety of projects primarily involving janitorial and grounds maintenance work. In Guilford offenders work with county maintenance and grounds staff on a variety of projects. Through the end of May, twelve Davidson offenders completed 582 hours of community service work.

*DRC Case Management.* DRC case managers coordinate services and intensively monitor offender compliance with court-ordered sanctions. Case manager activities are measured by the time spent a) assessing offender risk and needs, b) developing itineraries, c) making collateral contacts with other persons about the offender, d) working directly with the offender, and e) conducting home visits. Overall, Davidson DRC case managers devoted 10.6 hours of time to each offender’s case. This is much lower than the 54 hours per case reported in Guilford County. Some of the differential may be explained by the higher case-manager-to-client ratio in Guilford, as well as by the employment status of program participants (Davidson offenders have less idle time dur-

ing the day because most are working, the opposite is true in Guilford). Most Davidson case manager time was spent working directly with the offender. Offenders stated that they make 2.7 contacts per week with their DRC case manager. This is significantly more than the .7 contacts per week made with their probation officers. Although comparable data are not available for Guilford, case managers report that they make daily contact with offenders during the most intensive phases of the program.

In conclusion, some planned services have been implemented completely while others have progressed more slowly. The centers have made the most progress in getting the substance abuse and job-training components in place. Education has lagged in Davidson, while life skills have received less emphasis in Guilford.

### ***Stakeholder Survey (Davidson)***

Implementation may be judged by how well the program has been integrated into the larger criminal justice system. Harris and Smith (1996:183) view implementation as a "process of mutual adaptation between the vision and goals of those who initiate development or adoption of an innovation and the organizational or system environments in which the innovation is applied." The Davidson advisory board, composed of representatives from various criminal justice agencies and county government, created the DRC. The board still maintains a general oversight and policymaking role. A telephone survey of the board members (stakeholders) was conducted (response rate 87.5 percent) to measure the "fit" between the DRC and its organizational context. Relying heavily on Harris and Smith, the survey measured six conditions conducive to effective implementation: 1) perceived importance of program; 2) congruence between stakeholder and program goals; 3) integration of program into local criminal justice system; 4) appropriateness of target population; 5) satisfaction with program staff, services, and resources; and 6) strength of stakeholder support for the program.

With few exceptions, board members agree that the DRC addresses an important need in the community and that the program's goals match those held by board members. Overall, the board agrees that the DRC has been successfully integrated into the criminal justice system. However, a significant minority is dissatisfied with program integration, especially in regards to the number of offenders sentenced to the center (36 percent). Board members agree that the target population is appropriate and are quite satisfied with the staff, services, and resources available at the center. Finally, to gauge the level of support that members have for the program, respondents were asked whether they would recommend using local funds to continue the program if the state withdrew its financial support. A solid majority (79 percent) said that they would support the program in the event of such circumstances. All responses, when taken together, reveal a strong commitment among stakeholders to the program.

### ***Termination from the Program***

This section examines the differences between the offenders who successfully completed the DRC program and those who did not. Particular emphasis is placed on the demographic variables that may be associated with program outcome.

**Table 3**  
**Program Completion Rates by Offender Characteristics**

	Davidson	Guilford		Davidson	Guilford
<b>Overall Program Completion Rate</b>	18%	37%	<b>Employment Status</b>		
	N=67	N=97	Employed	19%	46%
			Unemployed	29%	32%
				N=52	N=97
<b>Race and Gender</b>			<b>Offense Type</b>		
White males	22%	53%			
White females	14%				
Black males	17%	32%	Felony	24%	36%
Black females	0%		Misdemeanor	15%	44%
Native Amer. males	67%			N=67	N=96
	N=67	N=97			
<b>Age</b>			<b>Offense Class</b>		
<20	13%	20%	Person	24%	44%
20-29	20%	53%	Property	13%	23%
30-39	17%	50%	Drug	19%	48%
40-49	20%	67%	Other	20%	60%
	N=67	N=97		N=67	N=97
<b>Marital Status</b>			<b>Family Ever in Jail</b>		
Married	40%	50%	Yes	15%	NA
Living together	20%		No	26%	NA
Separated	14%	50%		N=51	
Divorced	0%	75%			
Never married	19%	35%			
	N=53	N=97			

Sixty-seven offenders exited the Davidson program through the first seventeen months of program operation. Of these, twelve successfully completed all program requirements, while fifty-five were discharged for negative reasons. A total of ninety-seven offenders were terminated from Guilford's program, with sixty-one negatives and thirty-six positives. A small number of "other" terminations (i.e., transfers, deaths) have been excluded from this part of the analysis.

**Table 3** presents the positive termination rates for different offender characteristics. Small sample sizes preclude the use of more sophisticated statistical techniques; however, these data are useful for guiding future targeting and programmatic decisions.

What offender characteristics may relate to successful program completion or failure? Overall, 18 percent of Davidson and 37 percent of Guilford offenders successfully completed the program. This is low compared to programs elsewhere. In a national survey of day reporting centers, Parent et al. (1995) found a mean positive termination rate

of 50 percent. The Fairfax (Virginia) Day Reporting Center reports a similar success rate (Virginia Department of Criminal Justice Services, 1996). Programs in Orange County, Florida, and Massachusetts have program completion rates around 80 percent (Diggs and Pieper, 1994; McDevit and Miliano, 1992). Parent identified four factors that seem to correlate with high rates of dismissal: privately operated program, high level of services offered, high staff turnover rate, and use of curfews. On the surface, none of these factors appear to explain the low success rate in either program studied. In Davidson, white males, felons, persons guilty of assault crimes, married persons, and those entering the program without a job appear to have better success in the program. Guilford had a different list of offender characteristics that may relate to program success—white males, married, employed, misdemeanants, and older persons. There is a moderate relationship ( $\phi = .35, p \leq .01$ ) between age and program success in Guilford. Older offenders appear to do better in the program. This has serious implications for a program that specifically targets young persons. It may be necessary to either make changes in the program to better address the needs of these young individuals or change the target population to focus on a group that you know responds positively to the existing program. As more offenders exit the day reporting centers, it will be possible to make more definitive statements that explain and predict successful program completion.

## **Lessons Learned**

Policymakers considering the adoption of day reporting can take away several important lessons from the implementation experiences of the first day reporting centers in North Carolina. First, program implementation is perhaps best understood as a continuous process. Some elements in the original program design were implemented in the prescribed manner, while others underwent significant modification or were abandoned altogether. Second, program participation may be quite low despite apparently high support by justice system actors for the intervention. Overcoming resistance to the new initiative is a major challenge for program managers. Third, new intermediate sanctions have to deliver the right mix of services and surveillance to achieve public safety and cost-savings goals. The implementation process is the trial period for finding and keeping the balance necessary for program survival. Fourth, while it is not possible to measure the long-term impact (i.e., offender recidivism) of new day reporting centers, program managers can report intermediate outcome measures, which provide a more time-appropriate assessment of program effectiveness. These performance measures can help program managers to uncover areas of concern and take remedial action early in the implementation process.

## ***Implementation Is an Ongoing Process***

Based upon the experiences of the two day reporting centers in this analysis, implementation is rightly defined as a series of steps rather than as a single instance in time. The implementation process for North Carolina day reporting centers is best character-

ized as a period of continuous change and adaptation, sometimes lasting a year or more. In response to the expressed needs of various criminal justice system actors, program managers were often called on to refine major programmatic elements. For example, target profiles were broadened, program duration lengthened, and services added, as well as eliminated. In short, policymakers should anticipate changes to the original program design as the program finds its place within the larger criminal justice system. Major services were still being added a full year after official openings at both sites. Even after one year of working with offenders, it would be hard to conclude that implementation had, in fact, been completed. The ongoing nature of implementation confounds attempts to gauge program effectiveness during the program's infancy. The intervention received by the earliest program participants is much different than the one given to those a year into the program.

### ***Low Initial Participation***

The Davidson and Guilford DRCs operated well below maximum capacities during the period of study. New programs have to prove themselves competent and useful to other existing actors. A new program may be perceived by others as a threat to turf or as a competitor for scarce resources. In the North Carolina model, day reporting centers have no formal authority to increase the number of referrals made from the court. The court (judge, defense bar, and district attorney) and the probation department serve as gatekeepers who have the ability to move persons into day reporting. As such, day reporting center directors must rely on persuasion and perceived competence to "sell" their nascent programs. The process of building up institutional expertise takes time, and it may explain, in part, the slow rate of program referrals. Blumstein notes that most jurisdictions lack "an infrastructure of capability to manage the intermediate punishment" (1995:407). It may be argued that no amount of salesmanship can overcome philosophical misgivings about day reporting among key players. In the end, however, we found extremely strong support for the stated goals of day reporting among stakeholders in Davidson County.

### ***Finding the Balance***

At both centers, few program participants successfully completed all requirements. The low success rates are problematic for several reasons. First, a poor success rate has a negative impact (whether deserved or not) on the perception of competence and expertise that a new agency is trying to establish. Second, it provides an initial indication that more work needs to be done to better match services to needs or to identify a more appropriate target population. Third, low completion rates, especially in small programs, hinder the application of more rigorous statistical and analytical techniques to evaluate and improve the program. The easiest approach to solving this "problem" is to lower the standards so as to increase the number of persons who are successfully terminated from the program. Herein lies the dilemma. While this approach is a tempting way to improve short-term program measures, it has significant long-term repercussions.

The trade-off is whether or not to improve program completion rates at the cost of releasing offenders who are not yet prepared for reintegration back into the community. A short-run perspective on this issue may hurt the chances of long-term rehabilitation. Thus, the recommended course is to build feedback mechanisms into the program, which allow for continuous evaluation and improvement in program operations.

### ***Measuring Progress Toward Goals and Objectives***

New day reporting centers need to expand the use of outcome measures to track program performance. Since it is too early to measure the ultimate impact of the intervention (i.e., reduction in recidivism), day reporting centers can use various intermediate metrics to gauge the program's success in meeting its goals. By way of example, progress in drug treatment can be measured by counting the number of days dry and assessing the results of drug screens. Education can be measured by comparing initial versus final testing grade levels or GEDs received. The fair market value of community service work projects can be ascertained and reported as dollars saved. Job placement measures include wages earned, length of time on job, placements made, and restitution paid. By tracking the performance in this manner, program managers can make adjustments in the intervention strategy early in the implementation process. **jsj**

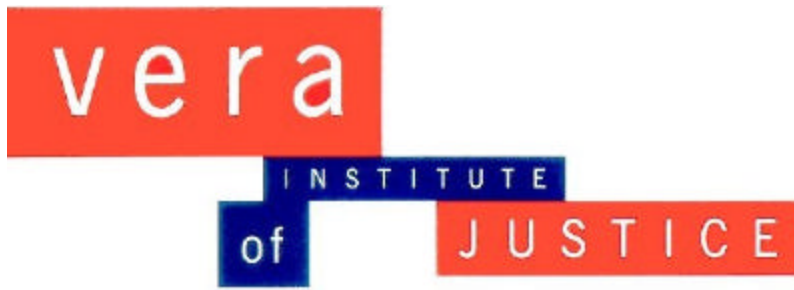
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## **APPENDIX 3**

### **EXPLORATORY ANALYSIS OF CLIENT OUTCOMES, COSTS, AND BENEFITS OF DAY REPORTING CENTERS**

**The author(s) shown below used Federal funds provided by the U.S. Department of Justice and prepared the following final report:**

**Document Title:** Exploratory Analysis of Client Outcomes, Costs, and Benefits of Day Reporting Centers – Final Report

**Author(s):** Amy Craddock

**Document No.:** 182365

**Date Received:** May 15, 2000

**Award Number:** 97-IJ-CX-0006

**This report has not been published by the U.S. Department of Justice. To provide better customer service, NCJRS has made this Federally-funded grant final report available electronically in addition to traditional paper copies.**

<p><b>Opinions or points of view expressed are those of the author(s) and do not necessarily reflect the official position or policies of the U.S. Department of Justice.</b></p>
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182365

**Final Report:**  
**An Exploratory Analysis of Client Outcomes, Costs, and  
Benefits of Day Reporting Centers**

**National Institute of Justice Grant 97-IJ-CX-0006**

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**March 21, 2000**

This research was also partially supported by grant 93-IJ-CX-4048 from the National Institute of Justice to Pacific Institute for Research and Evaluation (where Dr. Craddock was previously employed as a Senior Research Scientist). Points of view are those of the author and do not necessarily represent the position of the U.S. Department of Justice.

## **Abstract**

The role of community corrections has expanded in recent years. As a result, day reporting centers have developed as an important approach to providing surveillance, as well as treatment and rehabilitation opportunities. This exploratory study first examined rearrest among clients in two day reporting centers that serve high risk/high need probationers with substance abuse problems. One program is located in a rural area and the other is located in an urban area. Next, it compared DRC clients to two comparison groups of probationers. One group corresponds to the population eligible for DRC programs and the other group consists of high risk/high need probationers who are the target population for the DRC programs. The study also examines the net benefits(costs) to the criminal justice system of both day reporting centers. Because of the small sample sizes and exploratory nature of the study, the results are suggestive and impressionistic rather than definitive.

Logistic regression models indicate that completion of the DRC program was associated with a lower chance of rearrest. This model also supports dominant findings in the literature that extent of prior record is a strong predictor of future criminality and that younger offenders tend to have higher recidivism.

Subsequent models compared DRC completers and the High Risk/Need Comparison Group. Rearrest was related to the commonly found personal characteristics of age, offense, and prior record, rather than factors important to DRC program participation. In other words, while bivariate associations indicate that DRC completers had significantly lower recidivism than those in the High Risk/High Need Comparison Group, the differences do not appear to be due their DRC participation.

In terms of annual economic impact, the average DRC program completer in the rural program appears to save the criminal justice system approximately \$1893 during the 12-month follow-up period. In the urban county, probation officers primarily referred their most troublesome supervisees (who also tended to be of highest risk and need) to the DRC as an alternative to revocation. Perhaps because of this characteristic of the DRC clients, the average program completer costs the system of approximately \$359. Without access to the DRC, however, cost to the system would have been much greater.

## **1. Introduction**

Intermediate sanctions are increasingly important to courts and correctional systems as convictions increase and concomitant incarceration costs soar. Day reporting centers (DRCs) are one approach to providing intermediate sanctions that attempt to simultaneously respond to the above conditions and to meet several important goals, including providing equitable punishment, ensuring public safety, rehabilitating offenders, and providing cost-effective and cost-beneficial programs (Corbett 1992). This paper reports on a study of client outcomes in two DRCs that serve probationers.

Curtin (1992) describes DRCs as a "concept" that can be adapted to a variety of offender populations, treatment needs, and rehabilitation or supervision goals. Even so, they tend to have some relatively consistent purposes and characteristics. The National Institute of Justice (NIJ) identified several primary, frequently overlapping, purposes of DRCs: (1) provide enhanced surveillance for offenders who are having problems abiding by supervision conditions, or who require more supervision than normally available; (2) provide or broker treatment services; and/or (3) target offenders who would otherwise be confined, thereby reducing prison or jail crowding. As mechanisms to serve these purposes, NIJ found that DRCs generally contained the following three elements: (1) Offenders report to the center regularly and frequently as a condition of supervision; (2) The number of contacts per week is greater than clients would receive through normal community supervision; and (3) The programs provide or refer clients to services not available to offenders outside the DRC, or not available in as focused or intensive a manner (Parent et al. 1995).

## **2. Summary of Research on Day Reporting Centers**

DRCs began in Great Britain in the late 1960s, but most centers in the United States began operating after 1990. Because of their relatively recent development, very few studies of DRC outcomes have been published. In the most comprehensive study to date, McDevitt and Miliano (1992 ) examined the six DRCs in Massachusetts. All of these DRCs were designed to provide early release from relatively short incarceration periods. All but one center required treatment for any problems identified, and all required urine testing for illegal drugs. In addition, clients who had a recent major violation of institutional rules could be admitted to the DRC. Analysis showed that the programs did, in fact, provide early release, and that clients' low rates of return to incarceration indicated that their presence in the community did not endanger the public. The average length of stay in the Massachusetts programs was six to eight weeks and most clients had been convicted of drug, alcohol, or property offenses. Overall, 79% successfully completed and 5% failed to complete; the remainder left early for administrative reasons. Notwithstanding these results, the fact that the selection criteria excluded individuals with disciplinary infractions may have yielded a DRC population of relatively low-risk offenders from whom one would expect better than average outcomes. Also, clients were routinely returned to custody if they did not complete the program successfully.

A recent study of a DRC in North Carolina found a completion rate of about 13.5% (Marciniak 1999). This program differs from the Massachusetts programs in important ways. It is of 12-months duration and aimed at more serious and primarily substance-abusing offenders, a substantial portion of whom would be prison-bound if the DRC were not available. Also the evaluation included consideration of program completion during the early implementation of the

program. Hence, the instability common in new programs no doubt contributed to the low completion rate. A subsequent study of 15 other similar DRCs in North Carolina, conducted after their initial implementation period, showed a 43% completion rate. Most of these programs were designed to last six months, although some were 12-month programs (Craddock and Overman 1999).

Some Massachusetts programs used electronic monitoring as an adjunct to DRC participation, but it had little effect on program security and absconding. Anecdotal evidence indicates that the presence of electronic monitoring may have deterred some individuals from misconduct, but its real value was in helping to allay the concerns of residents in the communities surround the DRCs. McDevitt and Miliano (1992 ) concluded that DRCs are very attractive because they can be flexible enough to serve a broad range of offenders and to implement a wide array of programs. These authors caution, however, that a DRC's flexibility should not be extended to the point that the structure of the program cannot provide the support and treatment necessary to help offenders make the transition away from crime.

In the absence of a substantial body of research on DRCs, studies of other forms of community corrections and supervision are instructive. Generally, studies suggest that some programs succeeded in providing adequate community supervision and treatment without increasing current recidivism rates, but evidence for success in actually reducing recidivism or rehabilitating offenders is weak and contradictory. One rather consistent finding, however, is that offenders who received treatment in addition to correctional services/supervision had more successful outcomes than those who received supervision alone (e.g., U.S. General Accounting Office 1990 ; Williams 1990; Jones 1991 ; Shaw and MacKenzie 1991 ; McDonald, Greene, and Worzella 1992 ; Petersilia and Turner 1991, 1993 ; Davies 1993; Diggs and Pieper 1994 ; Gendreau, Cullen, and Bonta 1994 ; MacKenzie and Souryal 1994).



### **3. Description of Programs in the Study**

This study examined two DRCs in Wisconsin, one in Baraboo, a town of 9,000 in a mostly rural county of about 47,000, and the other in La Crosse, a small city of 50,000 in a county of almost 100,000. In this discussion, the former is referred to as the “rural” and the latter as the “urban” program (although it is in a relatively small urban area). Both programs operate under contract to the state Department of Corrections (DOC) and serve probationers throughout their respective counties. The DRCs are designed to serve offenders who are substance abusers, who are considered to be at high risk for reoffending, and who have a relatively high level of need for services, as determined by their initial probation classification assessment.

The primary therapeutic goal of these DRCs is to assist offenders in achieving responsible, crime- and drug-free living within their own community. Both centers are operated by the same private, nonprofit organization and have almost identical schedules and content. Phase I of the standard DRC program regimen (at both DRC locations) lasts four weeks and clients attend five days per week, five hours per day; Phase II also lasts four weeks, and required attendance reduces to three days per week, five hours per day; Phase III lasts four weeks and further reduces required attendance to two days per week, five hours per day. Phase IV is aftercare; it consists of three months of programming, beginning with one visit per week in the first month, reducing to once every two weeks in the second month, and one final meeting during the final month. DRC staff members reported that aftercare is rarely formally used. While most clients receive this standard programming, both centers also offer abbreviated programming. A twelve-week evening program, eight hours per week, is available to individuals who work full-

time during the day and are determined to need less than the full complement of treatment available. Case managers develop treatment plans based on clients' specific and greatest needs.

Movement to the next phase requires satisfactory progress toward completion of the treatment contract made at admission (including program attendance and no urinalyses positive for drugs). It is possible to move to the next phase more quickly than the prescribed four weeks. By the same token, individuals who do not progress satisfactorily may be retained in one phase until they successfully complete the goals of that phase and of their individual treatment plans. All clients have a case manager who works with them to develop a treatment plan, monitors their progress, provides limited individual counseling, and coordinates clients' activities with probation officers and representatives of other agencies.

Program content addresses three general areas: alcohol and other drug abuse (AODA), criminality, and independent living skills. AODA programming includes sobriety support groups, denial focus groups, drug education groups, treatment groups, individual counseling, family/significant other counseling (individual and group), and urine monitoring. Criminality issues are addressed via group treatment in rational behavior therapy, corrective thinking, and aggression replacement training. The independent living skills component of the program provides training in employment readiness, income management, and parenting, along with family and personal issues counseling. Some clients in the urban program live in monitored apartments as part of a program operated by the same organization as the DRCs, but it is not part of the DRC program. This transitional living program is not considered residential treatment because therapeutic programming does not occur nor is there full on-site staff coverage. A more comprehensive description of these programs and their process is available in Craddock and Graham (1996).

## **4. Research Design and Analysis Methodology**

The two goals of the study were to describe the recidivism of DRC clients, and to compare those outcomes to relevant groups of probationers. The following research questions framed the analysis:

- ◆ Were DRC clients who completed the program less likely to be arrested than those who did not?
- ◆ Were DRC clients less likely than other probationers to have further arrests?
- ◆ What factors were associated with rearrest of DRC clients and probationers?
- ◆ Did the benefits of programs to the criminal justice system offset their costs?

### **4.1 Selection of Study Groups**

The study included all DRC clients who were admitted on or after July 1, 1991 who were discharged by April 30, 1994. Individuals were defined either as “completers” if they were listed in the DRC’s management information system (MIS) as having completed the program or as referred to aftercare. “Noncompleters” consisted of those who dropped out, absconded, were rearrested, were withdrawn by the probation officer for violations or other reasons, or were discharged for noncompliance with program rules. Clients who did not complete the program due to administrative reasons (e.g., moved to another state) were deleted from the recidivism analysis because they had not technically had the opportunity either to complete or to fail to complete the program. Overall, 137 rural program clients and 94 urban program clients had sufficient data for inclusion in the analysis.

The comparison groups consisted of probationers in the two counties in the study who met the eligibility requirements for the DRCs but who did not participate in either program during the study period. The only formal eligibility or exclusion criteria for the DRCs were that individuals have an AODA problem and that they are at least 18 years of age. Next, the analysis examined the sex, age, racial/ethnic, and offense characteristics of the DRC clients to determine whether any general types of offenders were not represented in the programs, even though they were eligible. The rationale for doing so was that if no individuals of a particular type (e.g., females, Hispanics) participated in DRC programs, then this characteristic is a *de facto* exclusion criterion. Here, the only such characteristic applied only to the rural program, where no women participated in the program. Because the number of women probationers eligible for the rural program was relatively small, they did not participate in the regular DRC programming. It is generally considered therapeutically counterproductive to have treatment groups that include only one woman, so this center periodically offered a special program for female offenders.

Finally, the study required a follow-up period for DRC clients and the comparison group. The examination of outcomes followed DRC clients for 12 months after leaving the program. A preliminary analysis to determine the follow-up period for the comparison group indicated that individuals were typically admitted to the DRCs an average of 3.5 months after being placed on probation. For this reason, probationers who had not been rearrested before the middle of the third month of supervision were followed for 12 months beyond that point (i.e., 3.5 months to 15.5 months after probation admission). Therefore, offenders placed on probation in 1992-1993, who were at least 18 years of age, with a drug or alcohol problem of any severity, and who had not been rearrested in the first 3.5 months of their probation period comprised the pool from which DRC clients were most likely to be selected. This group is referred in the analysis as the

*Full Comparison Group.* The full comparison group for the rural program included 175 probationers, and the full comparison group for the urban program included 137.

The study also included a second comparison group for more detailed analysis. Preliminary analysis verified that DRC clients on average had significantly higher scores than the Full Comparison Group on the classification scales for risk of reoffending and need for various types of services. Therefore, a subset of the Full Comparison Group was created (for each county separately) based on whether individuals fell into the lower, middle, or upper third of the distribution of scores (in each county) on either risk or need. Preliminary analysis showed risk and need scores to be significantly and positively correlated, indicating that individuals with high-risk characteristics also tended to have a high need for services. Therefore, these measures were interchangeable for the present purposes. Those in the Full Comparison Group whose risk or need score fell into the upper third of the distribution of scores were defined as “high” risk or need. This group is designated as the *High Risk/High Need Comparison Group* in the analyses.

To summarize, the analyses compared the following groups: DRC completers vs. DRC noncompleters; all DRC clients vs. the Full Comparison Group; all DRC clients vs. the High Risk/High Need Comparison Group; DRC completers vs. the Full Comparison Group; and DRC completers vs. the High Risk/High Need Comparison Group.

Because of the exploratory nature of this project, this discussion reports results that had a significance level, indicating at least a 90% chance that any relationship observed did not occur by chance (i.e.,  $p < .10$ ). For continuous variables, difference of means tests ascertained whether the differences observed between two average values of a particular variable across study groups occurred by chance. Where multivariate modeling was possible, logistic regression analysis combined observations from both programs and their respective comparison groups to examine the (log) likelihood of rearrest.

## 4.2 Data and Measures

Three types of data were available for the study: personal characteristics of the DRC clients and comparison group members, prior record and rearrest data for DRC clients and comparison group members, and cost data for the DRC programs and criminal justice system.

### 4.2.1 Personal Characteristics

Table 1 presents descriptive statistics for the full range of demographic variables available for analysis. All individual level data for all study groups came from computerized DRC MIS and DOC MIS records. Neither MIS provided extensive information on personal characteristics. Two problematic characteristics of the DRC MIS are noteworthy. The DRC MIS combines assaults and public order offenses (such as disorderly conduct) into one category. It was not always possible to identify the offense from another source, so it was necessary to use the DRC's categorization. Doing so severely limited the analysis of the effect of offense type on recidivism. In addition, because the MIS contained no information on program participation, the analysis could not address the potential effects of program performance, amount and types of services received, the existence of program rule violations, or whether a client was in the standard program or the abbreviated version with fewer contact hours.

Although Table 1 shows adequate original sample sizes, sample attrition occurred due to missing records or missing data in various files. This sample attrition also made it inappropriate to pursue more sophisticated modeling of rearrest (e.g., event history analysis). After sample attrition, the demographic characteristics of the cases available for analysis did not differ significantly from the original sample characteristics presented in Table 1.

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— Insert Table 1 about here —

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#### 4.2.2 Prior Criminal History and Recidivism Measures

Data on prior record and recidivism came from the state criminal history information system and the motor vehicles division (which maintains data on driving while intoxicated).

The outcome analyses examined the likelihood of at least one arrest in the 12-month follow-up period, defined above. Arrest was the outcome measure of choice for two reasons. First, arrest is arguably the best available indicator of actual criminal activity. In addition, court disposition information was missing for a substantial percentage of arrests.

#### 4.2.3 Cost Measures

To examine whether savings offset DRC costs elsewhere in the criminal justice system, criminal justice system costs of DRC clients were compared to those of the comparison groups of probationers. Specifically, the analysis considered non-capital direct expenditures only, e.g., no construction or intergovernmental transfer costs. All cost estimates used local expenditures as reported by the agencies for which estimates were derived, and adjusted state and/or national estimates only when necessary. Section 7 presents detailed cost calculations.

The analysis used a net benefit(loss) model to examine whether these recidivism costs for the DRC client group were sufficiently lower than those for the comparison group to offset the DRC costs. The net benefit of providing DRC programming is the difference between the comparison group member cost and the DRC client costs. Because the primary interest is the difference in costs between groups, the formulas exclude costs that are identical (constant) for both groups. For example, because no data suggest that the arrest, disposition, incarceration, and/or probation costs for the offense for which the individual was under supervision during the study period differ between the two groups on average, the formulas excluded these costs.

Separate cost estimates were calculated for each study group in both DRC locations: all DRC clients, DRC Clients who completed the program, DRC Clients who failed to complete the program, the Full Comparison group, and the High Risk/High Need Comparison group.

Before the beginning of the follow-up period, the only difference between the cost of a DRC client and a comparison group client was the cost of the DRC, and perhaps the cost of other programming received by the comparison group members (which some DRC clients may also have received). The possibility of estimating this latter cost was investigated, but the MIS did not contain sufficient information to determine who in the sample received programming. The total cost of probation supervision includes this cost, however.

The first step in analyzing recidivism costs for each group listed above was to calculate the recidivism rate (RR) by dividing the number rearrested by the total sample size. The recidivism rate is, in effect, the probability that any one individual will be rearrested during the follow-up period.

The additional cost incurred by rearrested individuals is the recidivism cost (RC), which includes: costs of criminal investigation, arrest, and booking (AC); judicial process, prosecution and legal services, and public defense (DC); additional costs incurred if the rearrest leads to incarceration (IC); and a weighting factor that reflects the mean number of arrests during the follow-up period (AW). Incarceration cost (IC) is adjusted by the conviction rate (CR) and the timing of the first arrest during the follow-up period (AT). The timing of rearrest (AT) is measured as the number of weeks after the beginning of the 12-month follow-up period to the first arrest. It is expressed in this equation in terms of the proportion of the follow-up period that the person is estimated to have spent incarcerated, based on when the recidivism arrest occurred. No available data suggest that actual recidivism costs differ whether the rearrested client is from



the treated group or from the comparison group. Therefore, the calculations assume that the *per capita* recidivism cost structure is the same for both groups. RC is calculated as:

$$RC = ((AC+DC)AW) + (CR(IC(1-(AT/52.14))))$$

Multiplying the DRC client group ( $RR_t$ ) or comparison group ( $RR_c$ ) rearrest rate times the recidivism cost (RC) yields the expected cost to the system of a person from either group.

Adding the treatment cost for the DRC clients (TC) gives the cost equations for the two groups:

$$\text{DRC Client Cost} = RR_t(RC_t + TC)$$

$$\text{Comparison Group Member Cost} = RR_c RC_c$$

The net benefit or loss to the criminal justice system of providing services to offenders is the difference between the comparison group cost and DRC client cost:

$$\text{Net Benefit (Loss)} = (RR_c RC_c) - ((RR_t RC_t) + TC)$$

If the result is positive, this indicates that the comparison group costs to the criminal justice system are higher than DRC client costs, yielding a net benefit of DRC participation. If the result is negative, this indicates that DRC participation produces a net economic loss to the criminal justice system.

### 4.3 Methodological Limitations

Several aspects of the research setting limited the methodological choices. A prospective study, preferably using experimental design would have been the approach of choice, but the size of the programs and duration of the project did not allow for its use, nor did the DOC and program director did not approve of an experimental design in this situation. This approach would have required about five years to complete, given the flow of clients through the program. The funding level also dictated that the study use computerized record-based data, rather than interviews or record extraction of DRC or DOC files.

Such limitations are common in exploratory studies. Presumably, future studies will use more rigorous methodologies that can yield greater confidence in the findings.

## **5. Rearrest of Day Reporting Center Clients**

The first part of the outcome analysis examined the rearrest of DRC clients only, without making comparisons to the rearrest of probationers. In the rural program, 61.3% of the clients completed the program, as did 41.1% in the urban DRC. In comparison, Parent, et al. (1995) reported a national DRC average of 50% completion.

Overall, a smaller proportion of clients who completed the program were rearrested compared to those who failed to complete. In the rural program, 16.7% of the completers were rearrested compared to 28.3% of noncompleters. This difference was not statistically significant. In the urban program, 18.9% of the completers were rearrested compared to 37.7% of noncompleters; this difference was significant ( $p = .06$ ). The mean number of weeks that elapsed between discharge and the first arrest, for those rearrested within twelve months, was between 14 and 17 weeks regardless of completion status or program location. Difference of means tests between groups were not significant.

A more detailed examination of the relationship between program completion and rearrest looked at both programs together. Logistic regression analysis modeled the log-likelihood of rearrest for all DRC clients in each program using completion status along with all variables from Table 1. Exploratory models were estimated in a stepwise manner due to the small sample sizes. Again, because of the exploratory nature of the study, parameters entered the models if the Chi-square was significant at at least the .10 level, rather than the standard and more stringent .05 criterion. Log-transformations of income and age (natural log) did not improve their distributions, so the models used untransformed measures. Even though the sample sizes were larger than those described in the analysis of outcomes for program

completers, they were still small, and results should be viewed as suggestive. The small sample sizes also precluded consideration of additional variables that examined interaction effects. Multicollinearity testing examined the tolerances for each parameter. Using the guidelines in Allison (1999), a tolerance of .40 or less indicated multicollinearity. The statistic for age at DRC program admission (.36) and age at first arrest (.36) indicated that only one should be included in the modeling process, as did the statistic for income at admission (.35) and income at discharge (.32). Since there were fewer missing observations for age and income at admission, these were the variables of choice.

Table 2 presents the final reduced models of rearrest. The global chi-square and the Hosmer and Lemeshow statistic both indicate that the model performs better than chance, although neither are particularly robust measures. The maximum rescaled  $R^2$  statistic of .31 indicates that the specific set of independent variables have some ability to predict the dependent variable; a value of 0 indicates a prediction no better than chance, and a value of 1 indicates perfect prediction. It does not have the same properties as the  $R^2$  statistic in linear regression (Allison 1999). Although this model performs better than chance, the parameters do not constitute strong predictors of rearrest.

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— Insert Table 2 about here —

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Five variables predicted rearrest in the 12-months after leaving the DRC program. Completion of the DRC program was associated with a lower chance of rearrest, as was a current conviction for a property offense (compared to offenses in the “other” category). Current offense had the largest standardized parameter estimate, indicating that a change in its value (from 0 to 1, or vice versa) produced the largest change in the dependent variable. The higher a

person's income and age at admission to the DRC, the less likely he is to be rearrested, as well.

Finally, each previous arrest incrementally contributed to a higher chance of rearrest.

Examination of the standardized parameter estimates indicates that this model supports dominant findings in the literature that extent of prior record is a strong predictor of future criminality and that younger offenders tend to have higher recidivism. Given the  $R^2$  analog of .31, it is clear that the independent variables did not predict the value of the dependent variable well, most likely because other important factors were not available for analysis. It does, however, indicate that DTC completion independently affected recidivism, net of the effect of the other factors considered.

## 6. Rearrest of DRC Clients Compared to Probationers

The second part of the study separately compared DRC clients overall and DRC completers to the two subgroups of probationers -- the Full Comparison Group (all DRC-eligible probationers) and the High Risk/High Need Comparison Group (see Table 3). The only relationship that yielded a significant difference in the likelihood of rearrest was the comparison between DRC completers and the High Risk/High Need Comparison Group in the rural program.

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— Insert Table 3 about here —

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In the urban program, no significant differences in recidivism existed between any DRC clients group and any comparison group. This preliminary analysis suggests that the group referred to the DRC in the urban area may have been much more prone to recidivism than those in the rural are and that DRC completion may have helped reduce recidivism, but the rearrest rate was still high compared to that of other high risk/high need probationers and indeed to DRC-eligible probationers overall.

Table 4 shows the offense category for the first recidivism arrest. In the rural program, the most common recidivism arrest among DRC clients was for probation violations, while for both comparison groups it was DWI. This relationship suggests that DRC clients were rearrested for less serious criminal activity than comparison group members. It is difficult to compare recidivism offenses to current offenses, due to the problem of how the DRC MIS coded offense (as discussed in Section 4). Given that probation violations were the predominant recidivism offense, though, it seems plausible that DRC clients' rearrest offense was likely to be less serious

than the offense for which they were on probation when admitted to the DRC program. It is also notable that DRC clients had a much smaller proportion of DWI arrests than either comparison group, although DRC completers had a larger proportion of DWI arrests than noncompleters.

In the urban program, DRC completers were most often rearrested for Public Order offenses, while noncompleters were rearrested for Person offenses. This finding may indicate that even when DRC completers commit new offenses, they tend to be less serious than the offense for which they were on probation when admitted to the DRC. DWI was the most common rearrest offense for the Full Comparison Group. For the High Risk/High Need Comparison Group, DWI and Public Order offenses were the most common. On the other hand, DRC completers had no DWI recidivism arrests.

All percentages in Table 4 require cautious interpretation, because the small sample sizes for each subgroup mean that these percentages frequently represent only one or two cases.

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— Insert Table 4 about here —

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Logistic regression analysis modeled rearrest for DRC completers and the High Risk/High Need Comparison Group. Because of the small sample size, models combined both programs and included the program identifier as an independent variable. Comparison between these two study groups was the only one appropriate to use for further analysis because it had the only significant difference in rearrest by study group, whether programs were examined separately or together.

The range of variables available for this analysis was more limited than for the analysis of DRC clients, because most of the variables were not available for the comparison group. The variables included in this modeling process were age, number of prior arrests, program

(rural/urban), and current offense (coded identically to the DRC client analysis). Again, regression diagnostics indicated multicollinearity between age at DRC/probation admission and age at first arrest; age at DRC/probation admission only was entered into the models.

Table 5 shows the model that compares DRC completers and the High Risk/Need Comparison Group. These two groups reflect the DRC target population. Not surprisingly, it indicates that as age increased, the likelihood of rearrest decreased, while having more prior arrests increased the likelihood. Those convicted of property offenses had a lower likelihood of rearrest compared to “other” offenses. The factor indicating whether the person was a DRC client or a member of the comparison group was not significant, nor were the other available factors (i.e., race and whether the person was in the rural or urban program). These results imply that rearrest was related to the commonly found personal characteristics of age, offense, and prior record, rather than factors important to DRC program participation. In other words, while bivariate associations indicate that DRC completers had significantly lower recidivism than those in the High Risk/High Need Comparison Group, the differences do not appear to be due their DRC participation.

It is crucial to stress that the model is very weak ( $R^2$  analog = .1856), and that inclusion of other important factors unavailable in this analysis may negate the importance of the current ones identified. In addition, the sample sizes were minimally adequate for the analysis undertaken, so again, interpretations are impressionistic and suggestive only.

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— Insert Table 5 about here —

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## 7. Costs and Benefits of Day Reporting Centers

The third part of the study examined the criminal justice system costs and savings associated with the two DRCs and comparison groups. As described in Section 4, the total net benefit/cost estimate includes the costs to the criminal justice system of recidivism for all study participants, as well as the cost of treatment for the DRC clients. The following section describes estimates derived from formulas presented in Section 4. Table 6 presents the individual estimates by study group.

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— Insert Table 6 about here —

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### Recidivism Cost

Recidivism cost has five elements: arrest cost, disposition cost, arrest weight, conviction rate, and incarceration cost. While measurement of criminal justice system costs may seem straightforward, it is frequently difficult to obtain precise estimates of many types of expenditures.

#### 7.1.1 Arrest Cost

The arrest cost (AC) is expressed as:

$$\frac{\text{total law enforcement costs for all agencies in the counties in the study}}{\text{number of arrests for non-traffic offenses}}$$

These costs were obtained from expenditure data submitted to the Bureau of the Census and arrest data submitted to the FBI Uniform Crime Report.

For this study, DWI is defined as a non-traffic offense. The accuracy of this estimate is affected by the fact that agencies included DWI offenses in their determination of traffic law



enforcement expenditures. It was, for example, not appropriate to simply delete the costs of the patrol divisions (which typically include primary traffic law enforcement officers) and consider only the investigative divisions, because patrol officers are involved in criminal law enforcement as well. Therefore, the numerator includes the costs of traffic law enforcement, but the denominator excludes all traffic offenses except DWI. Estimated cost of an arrest in the rural county was \$984, and in the urban county it was \$575.

#### 7.1.2 Disposition Costs

The cost associated with the disposition of court cases (DC) is calculated:

$$\frac{\text{total criminal court expenditures}}{\text{total criminal cases filed}}$$

For this estimate, arrest is a proxy for the number of criminal cases filed. This probably overestimates the measure to some degree, but preliminary examination indicates that most arrests lead to court case filing. Cost figures came from data submitted to the Bureau of the Census. Local (county) cost figures attributable to criminal and DWI cases had to be adjusted using statewide court case filing data, because the two types of cases were not separated in local statistics. Statewide, 11% of cases were either criminal or DWI, according to data submitted to the National Center for State Courts. The cost of a court disposition in the rural county, therefore, was estimated at \$90, and in the urban county was \$74.

#### 7.1.3 Arrest Weight

This figure (AW) is the mean number of non-traffic arrests for each study group during the 12-month follow-up period.

#### 7.1.4 Incarceration Cost

The cost of incarceration (IC) is:

$$(\text{annual state prison incarceration costs}) \times (\text{mean number of weeks convicted recidivists were incarcerated during the 12-month follow-up period})$$

Annual state prison incarceration costs supplied by the state Department of Correction were \$20,217, exclusive of capital outlays. The mean number of weeks incarcerated was adjusted by the average time to rearrest for each study group. Estimates assumed that rearrest of a probationer would be likely to lead to almost immediate incarceration, either awaiting trial or serving a sentence, and that the incarceration continued for the rest of the follow-up period.

Again, this estimate suffered from missing foundational data. About 33% of the arrests that had data indicating a conviction had no data about the sentence received. These may have mostly been county jail sentences, but it was not possible to determine whether this was the case.

This examination excluded county jail costs for three reasons. First, the population base was so small that any estimates derived would have been extremely unstable. Second, reliable data on pretrial detention and jail sentences were not available given the resources of the jail information systems and the project funds. Finally, estimates assumed that all of the individuals in the study who were reincarcerated were sent to state prison because most of them were currently on probation for felonies and were not typically first offenders. Using state prison incarceration costs may have slightly overestimated the cost of pretrial detention. Since pretrial detention data were not available, this was the best estimate possible.

#### 7.1.5 Conviction Rate

This figure (CR) represents the proportion of recidivism arrests that resulted in conviction, based on examination of state criminal history data for individuals in the study. It is probably the least robust of all, due to missing data and the small sample size. Dispositions were missing for approximately 27% of recidivism arrests. For some study groups, the conviction rate was based on less than 10 individuals. This occurred because the estimate required both that the individual have a recidivism arrest and that the arrest have a disposition entered. See Table 6 for individual estimates.

## 7.2 Treatment Costs

The per capita cost of providing DRC programming (TC) was based on annual total program costs (from DRC budgets), annual number of clients served, and average length of stay:

$$\frac{\text{total annual budget}}{\text{total annual budget} / \# \text{ clients served annually}} \times \text{mean weeks in program for study group}$$

The cost of all DOC-funded treatment is included in the DOC's statewide per capita supervision costs. Recall that supervision costs are not included in the cost estimates because they are constant across all study groups. Treatment costs are distributed across all probationers, regardless of which ones actually receive the services. It is, therefore, debatable whether treatment costs should be assessed DRC clients as though they were not accounted for elsewhere. Including them produces a more conservative estimate of the costs/benefits of DRC completion.

## 7.3 Benefit/Cost Estimates

Benefit/cost estimates for the comparison between DRC Completers and the High Risk/High Need Comparison Group showed important differences. Like the recidivism analysis, the benefit/cost examination focused on this comparison, because these groups represent the DRC target population. Figure 1 presents the net benefit(cost) calculations for the rural program. It shows that the recidivism cost during the 12-month follow-up period for a high risk/high need probationer was \$3820. For an average DRC program completion, the 12-month recidivism cost was \$1927. This difference yields a one-year net benefit to the system of \$1893 for every DRC completion. The annual per capita recidivism cost for DRC noncompleters was \$2478 and for the Full Comparison Group it was \$2815.

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— Insert Figure 1 about here —

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These calculations reveal that DRC clients generally have lower costs to the system than probationers. Even DRC clients who do not complete the program yielded a net benefit. Cost components presented in Table 6 show that these cost differences were largely explained by the much higher conviction rate for both comparison groups when compared to DRC clients. Given the small sample sizes and level of missing data on convictions, these figures may, therefore, be an artifact of the data. The conviction rate may be related to the nature of the recidivism offense. To illustrate, Table 4 shows that DRC clients were primarily rearrested for probation violations, in proportions much larger than either comparison group. Other analysis (not shown) revealed that arrests for probation violations led to conviction less often than for other offenses.

Figure 2 shows the net benefit/cost calculations for the urban program. Here, the recidivism cost of DRC completers was higher than that of high risk/high need probationers (\$3378 and \$3019, respectively). This difference yields a net loss of \$359 to the criminal justice system for DRC participation. The recidivism cost for DRC noncompleters was \$4353 and for the Full Comparison Group, it was \$2430.

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— Insert Figure 2 about here —

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These observations may, in part, reflect the relatively difficult population served by the urban DRC. This population was likely to have been drawn from high risk/high need probationers who violated probation or otherwise caused trouble early in their supervision period, and thus were sent to the DRC as an alternative to revocation. Probation officers

interviewed indicated that absent the DRC as a programming option, almost all of these individuals would have been revoked and their incarceration sentence most likely imposed. Even a conservative estimate of 50% recidivism without DRC participation, shows that this group's per capita recidivism cost to the system would have been \$6013 (using estimation components from the High Risk/High Need Comparison Group). This figure is almost twice the cost for the average High Risk/High Need Comparison Group member. Seen in this light, the DRC is very likely actually to have saved the criminal justice system money, although the amount cannot be directly estimated with available data.

## **8. Discussion**

The results of this exploratory study suggest that DRCs may provide a viable correctional treatment option for moderately high-risk offenders supervised in the community. Modeling of recidivism for DRC clients indicates that program completion was significantly associated with lower chances of rearrest.

Probation officers in the rural county tended to systematically refer the highest risk probationers to the DRC. Logically, these probationers should be most at risk for rearrest. One year after completing the program, these individuals were rearrested significantly less frequently than high risk/high need probationers who were eligible for the DRC but not referred. This outcome may suggest both a successful referral strategy as well as a successful treatment program experience for this category of offender. In terms of annual economic impact, the average DRC program completer appears to save the criminal justice system approximately \$1893 during the 12-month follow-up period.

In the urban county, probation officers primarily referred their most troublesome supervisees (who also tended to be of highest risk and need) to the DRC. For those who completed the DRC program, the rearrest rate was lower, but not significantly lower, than other high risk/high need probationers who did not receive such programming. Because many probation officers referred offenders to the DRC as a formal or informal alternative to revocation, it is likely that their recidivism rate would be near 100%, absent DRC intervention. These recidivism results and the related lower-than-average completion rate also suggest that the type and/or intensity of the DRC intervention was not sufficient to reduce the recidivism of the most troublesome probationers to a level significantly lower than high risk/high need

probationers in general. Perhaps because of this characteristic of the DRC clients, the average program completer costs the system of approximately \$359. Without access to the DRC, however, the recidivism rate among this group would undoubtedly have been much higher than the observed 19% and costs to the system much greater.

The programs studied here are of a single model and focus on serving a specific population. Accordingly, conclusions cannot be drawn about how this type of DRC program might affect the recidivism of other types of offenders. These programs, for example, contained few women and minorities. Treatment programs have recognized the importance of culturally appropriate content. It is unknown how this DRC model would fare if the demographic make-up of the clientele were different.

In addition, because experimental design was not possible, the study cannot conclude that program participation, or the lack thereof, was the primary factor influencing recidivism. A larger sample size would have permitted a closer examination of the influence of referral practices, supervision level, effects of various components of the risk and need scores on recidivism.

Because many questions remain unanswered and many important issues have not been addressed, the results of this study lead to several recommendations for future research.

- ◆ A careful study of program process at the client level is essential. Researchers need to ascertain what aspects of DRC programming enhance completion and influence outcomes.
- ◆ Experimental design is crucial to isolate the effect of DRC participation.
- ◆ Examination of an array of outcomes can provide an understanding of the relationship between important life activities and recidivism (e.g., how relapse to substance abuse, employment failure, and/or family situation relate to recidivism).

- ◆ A more comprehensive benefit-cost study of DRCs is required to evaluate their utility as a community-based correctional and treatment alternative. Such a study should include the examination of lost productivity and more detailed information on local system costs.



**Table 1. Characteristics of Day Reporting Center Clients and Comparison Groups**

Individual Characteristics		Rural Program			Urban Program		
		DRC (n=137)	Full Comp. Group (n=175)	High Risk / Need Comp. Group (n=74)	DRC (n=94)	Full Comp. Group (n=137)	High Risk / Need Comp. Group (n=61)
<b>CRIMINAL HISTORY</b>							
Age at first arrest (in years)	<i>median</i>	20	22	20	20	23	23
	<i>mean</i>	23	25	23	22	26	26
Number of arrests before admission	<i>Median</i>	3	2	2	3	2	2
	<i>Mean</i>	4	3	4	4	4	5
<b>DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES</b>							
Median age at admission (years)		28	29	28	25	30	27
Percentage high school graduates		55.6%	59.1%	53.2%	47.4%	60.3%	50.0%
Percentage white		95.1%	94.8%	93.2%	93.0%	90.6%	90.2
Percentage male		97.9%	100.0%	100.0%	82.0%	81.9%	80.3%
Percentage married		20.4%	23.4%	18.4%	9.0%	25.0%	23.7%
Current offense	<i>Person/Public Order</i>	40.1%	64.2%	59.4%	37.0%	59.4%	55.7%
	<i>Property</i>	35.9	12.1	13.5	48.0	11.6	13.1
	<i>Drug/Alcohol (non-DWI)</i>	19.0	11.0	9.5	12.0	14.5	11.5
	<i>Driving while Intox. (DWI)</i>	2.8	0.0	0.0	2.0	0.0	0.0
	<i>Other</i>	2.1	12.7	17.6	1.0	14.5	19.7
Monthly income at DRC admission	<i>Median</i>	\$633	NA	NA	\$ 25	NA	NA
	<i>Mean</i>	635			354		
Monthly income at DRC discharge	<i>Median</i>	\$800	NA	NA	\$506	NA	NA
	<i>Mean</i>	684			449		

NA = Not Available

**Table 2. Logistic Regression Analysis of Rearrest of DRC Clients, Results of Stepwise Model Selection**

	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	Odds Ratio	Standardized Parameter Estimate
DRC completion <sup>a</sup>	-0.8688**	.3607	0.419	-0.2395
Number of prior arrests	0.1420**	.0442	1.153	0.3563
Age at DRC admission	-0.0624**	.0298	0.940	-0.2552
Offense category <sup>b</sup>				
Person/public order offense	-0.3298	.4654	0.719	-0.0694
Alcohol/drug offense	-0.3928	.4791	0.675	-0.0810
Property offense	-2.3610**	.5348	0.094	-0.6136
Monthly income at DRC admission	-0.0007*	.0004	0.999	-0.2068
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	53.0372 (p < .0001)			
Maximum rescaled R <sup>2</sup>	.3096			
Hosmer-Lemeshow Goodness of Fit	.93			

N = 227

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .10

<sup>a</sup> 1=completed, 0 = did not complete

<sup>b</sup> "Other" is the reference category.

**Table 3. Recidivism of DRC Clients and Comparison Groups <sup>a</sup>**

Study Group	Rural Program		Urban Program	
	Percentage Rearrested	Number Rearrested	Percentage Rearrested	Number Rearrested
DRC CLIENTS				
All Clients <sup>b</sup>	21.2%	29	30.0%	27
Program Completers	16.7	14	18.9	7
COMPARISON GROUPS				
Full Comparison Group	24.6	42	20.3	28
High Risk/High Need Comparison Group	31.5	23	25.0	15

<sup>a</sup> The only statistically significant difference in rearrest between all client/probationer comparisons was between DRC completers and the High Risk/High Need Comparison Group in the rural program. This difference was significant at the  $p < .05$  level.

<sup>b</sup> The numbers in these cells represent the observations for which DRC completion status was known. Including the observations for which completion status was missing, 31 (21.8%) of rural clients were rearrested as were 29 (29%) of urban clients.

**Table 4. First Recidivism Offense of DRC Clients and Comparison Groups**

Offense	Rural Program				Urban Program			
	DRC Clients		Comparison Groups		DRC Clients		Comparison Groups	
	Com- pleters (n=14)	Noncom- pleters (n=15)	Full (n=19)	High Risk/High Need (n=23)	Com- pleters (n=7)	Noncom- pleters (n=20)	Full (n=13)	High Risk/High Need (n=15)
Person	7.1	20.0	5.3	17.4	28.6	30.0	15.4	6.7
Property	0.0	6.7	15.8	4.4	0.0	25.0	7.7	13.3
Alcohol/Drug	14.3	6.7	0.0	8.7	0.0	15.0	7.7	13.3
DWI	14.3	6.7	42.1	39.1	0.0	10.0	38.5	26.7
Probation Violation	57.1	46.7	31.6	17.4	0.0	0.0	7.7	0.0
Public Order	7.1	13.3	5.3	8.7	71.4	20.0	23.1	26.7
Other	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	13.3

**Table 5. Logistic Regression Analysis of Rearrest of DRC Completers and High Risk/Need Comparison Group, Reduced Model**

	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	Odds Ratio	Standardized Parameter Estimate
Offense category				
Person/public order offense	-0.6169	.4627	0.540	-0.1312
Property offense	-2.1511*	.6441	0.116	-0.5018
Alcohol/drug offense	0.3936	.3690	1.482	0.0907
Number of prior arrests	0.0918*	.0323	1.096	0.2539
Age at DRC/probation admission	-0.0420*	.0208	0.959	-0.2056
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	33.2848 (p < .0001)			
Maximum rescaled R <sup>2</sup>	.1856			
Hosmer-Lemeshow Goodness of Fit	.78			

\* p < .10 (no variables were significant at this level)

\*\* p < .05

**Table 6. Cost Components by Study Group**

	Rural					Urban				
	DRC			Comparison Groups		DRC			Comparison Groups	
	Total	Completers	Noncompleters	Full	High Risk/ Need	Total	Completers	Noncompleters	Full	High Risk/ Need
Recidivism Rate (RR)	.21	.17	.28	.25	.32	.30	.19	.38	.20	.25
Conviction Rate (CR)	.21	.20	.17	.63	.64	.65	.80	.61	.88	.88
Mean weeks to rearrest (AT)	15.1	15.9	13.8	14.4	14.0	14.6	17.1	14.0	19.2	19.6
Mean arrests/year (AW)	2.6	1.6	3.3	1.9	2.3	1.7	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.5
Mean weeks in DRC	14.7	16.8	11.3	n/a	n/a	13.8	18.1	9.5	n/a	n/a
Treatment Cost (TC) \$	1012	1156	778	n/a	n/a	879	1152	605	n/a	n/a
Arrest Cost (AC) \$	954					575				
Disposition Cost (DC) \$	44					33				
Incarceration Cost (IC) \$	20,217					20,217				

n/a not applicable

## Figure 1. Benefit/Cost Calculations, Rural County

### Recidivism Cost: High Risk/High Need Comparison Group

$$\begin{aligned}RC_c &= [(AC + DC)AW] + [CR(IC(1-(AT/52.14)))] \\&= [(984+90)2.3] + [.64(20,217(1-(14.0/52.14)))] \\&= 11,819\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Total Cost} &= RR_c RC_c \\&= .32(11,819) \\&= 3782\end{aligned}$$

### Recidivism Cost: DRC Completers

$$\begin{aligned}RC_t &= [(AC + DC)AW] + [CR(IC(1-(AT/52.14)))] \\&= [(984+90)1.6] + [.20(20,217((1-15.9/52.14)))] \\&= 4452\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}TC &= ((\text{total budget}/\# \text{ clients served annually})/\text{mean weeks in program for all clients}) \\&\quad * \text{mean weeks in program for study group} \\&= ((114900/105)/15.9)*16.8 \\&= 1156\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Total Cost} &= RR_t (RC_t + TC) \\&= .17(4452) + 1156 \\&= 1913\end{aligned}$$

### Net Benefit(Cost)

$$\begin{aligned}& (RR_c RC_c) - [(RR_t RC_t) + TC] \\&= 3783 - 1913 \\&= \$ 1893\end{aligned}$$

## Figure 2. Benefit/Cost Calculations, Urban County

### Recidivism Cost: High Risk/High Need Comparison Group

$$\begin{aligned}RC_c &= [(AC + DC)AW] + [CR(IC(1-(AT/52.14)))] \\&= [(575+74)1.5] + [.88(20,217(1-(19.6/52.14)))] \\&= 11,997\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Total Cost} &= RR_c RC_c \\&= .25(11,997) \\&= 2999\end{aligned}$$

### Recidivism Cost: DRC Completers

$$\begin{aligned}RC_t &= [(AC + DC)AW] + [CR(IC(1-(AT/52.14)))] \\&= [(575+74)1.3] + [.80(20,217(1-(17.1/52.14)))] \\&= 11,645\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}TC &= ((\text{total budget}/\# \text{ clients served annually})/\text{mean weeks in program for all clients}) \\&\quad * \text{mean weeks in program for study group} \\&= ((92,250/90)/16.1)*18.1 \\&= 1152\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Total Cost} &= RR(RC) + TC \\&= .19(11,645) + 1152 \\&= 3365\end{aligned}$$

### Net Benefit(Cost)

$$\begin{aligned}& (RR_c RC_c) - [(RR_t RC_t) + TC] \\&= 2999 - 3365 \\&= - \$ 359\end{aligned}$$



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